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Continuing

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The Historical Outlook

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READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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A Brief Survey of Some Aspects of the Problem of China

BY GEORGE MATTHEW DUTCHER, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, MIDDLE-TOWN, CONNECTICUT.

It is said that an eminent American clergyman who recently visited China, in reply to the question of what he thought about China, replied, "China is a mess." His answer is probably a fair summary of the ideas of that great nation's affairs held by most people who do not have a first-hand knowledge of the people and their problems and are not prepared to make the effort necessary to study the situation.

At the beginning of my own visit to the country in the autumn of 1921, a single word kept coming to my mind as expressive of the condition which I was observing, that word was "inertia." The area involved, whether one thinks only of China proper or of the whole empire including the outlying provinces, is vast and contains enormous natural resources whose exploitation has scarcely been begun. The population of four hundred millions is the largest single unit in the world, and three-quarters of these people, probably, are agriculturists—a class proverbially conservative. The country has made only a small beginning at adopting the means of rapid transportation and communication in general use in western lands. Likewise the adoption of the various substitutes and supplements for man-power and hand-work has only begun. The people have an unbroken history of more than four thousand years in their land, and consequently have, to a degree unequalled by any people who have emerged from barbarism, the sense of the value of time as a solvent for difficulties. No other people knows so well the virtue of patience. A social and economic order established for four thousand years among the same people in the same land has produced a mass of restraints upon mobility within that order such as is known nowhere else in history, except possibly in Egypt. These factors have conduced to deaden the sense of individual initiative and responsibility to an extraordinary degree so that the Chinese citizen appears to a westerner amazingly indifferent and stolid in face of his nation's conditions.

A second word, however, soon flashed in my mind and kept recurring—it was "motion." With all its appearance of inertia China is in motion. This was first impressed upon me as I tried to visualize Peking as the scene of the Boxer rebellion, and as I noted point by point the changes which have come over the city in its material aspects and in the life and activities of the people. This establishment of a fixed point from which to measure the movement was

supplemented by two other fixed points. One of these was the establishment of the Republic in 1911, the other was the date, approximately fifty years ago, reached by the memory of the oldest foreign residents. These supplemental fixed points were important for they revealed a slow rate of motion up to the Boxer affair in 1900; a more rapid rate after that date, and a greatly accelerated speed since 1911. Thus, while the western visitor is at first impressed by the inertia and the small degree of Chinese progress toward the development attained by western nations, he finds that within a half-century there has been much genuine progress, of which perhaps half has been within the last decade. This is a fact obviously pregnant for the future of China. Perhaps the changes of the next fifty years will suggest reversing the poet's dictum into, better a half-century of Cathay than a thousand years of Europe.

In contrast to Japan where the government committed the nation a half-century ago to a policy of placing itself on an equality with western nations and of controlling that process to the exclusion of intervention by foreign powers, the Chinese government failed to adopt such a policy and has left the nation to suffer passively while foreign governments have pursued a steady policy of infringement upon its integrity and independence, culminating in the activities of Japan during the World War and the Peace Conference at Versailles. The recent Washington Conference has placed a period—it is hoped permanently—to that state of affairs as it represents the attitude both of the Chinese government and of foreign powers.

While the Japanese people, as individuals, have studied and adopted western ways, if not at the direction of the government, at least in accordance with its policy, in China the knowledge and employment of occidental culture and methods has been left to the individual to acquire and utilize on his own initiative, in face sometimes of official hostility, sometimes of passive toleration by the government, rarely with the encouragement of the constituted authorities. This circumstance has not been without its advantages, for the individual Chinese have developed a greater ability to adapt themselves to western ways than have the individual Japanese, and the individual Chinese have developed a higher degree of initiative and acquired a larger freedom of personal action. Whatever the final estimate of his character and

achievement may be, it cannot be denied that Dr. Sun Yat Sen is the embodiment of this phase of China's development, both in his vision and achievement of the establishment of the Republic, and in the vision and energy with which he has attacked the problems of his people more recently.

Basic to the solution of China's other problems are the extensive development of rapid and cheap means of transportation and communication and the readjustment of the nation's economic life to the standards established in other lands by the industrial revolution in agriculture, mining, and manufactures. The close of the World War has brought the European nations and the United States face to face with the necessity for reorganization of both capital and labor in their relations to the conduct of the processes of production and exchange. China, however, finds itself confronted with the problem of effecting at the same time the transformations wrought by the original Industrial Revolution and the reorganization required by the new one which is in progress in the West. Because of its belated progress, the problem of China assumes stupendous proportions, but there is no small compensation in the opportunity to utilize the experience of other nations, to employ the services of their experts, and to effect the new material creation in accordance with a complete and scientifically elaborated plan. China will also have the advantage of undertaking the adjustment of capital and labor simultaneously with the material reorganization, and without going through the experimental stages of transition which have been necessarily the lot of the western nations.

Hitherto, these developments in China have been dependent upon foreign capital and enterprise, usually backed by foreign governments, and have been conducted at haphazard as far as the interest of China has been concerned because they have been subservient to the varying political interests and schemes of the foreign powers. To secure results which shall best conduce to China's welfare, that nation itself must assume the responsibility of directing the new developments, must adopt a comprehensive plan, must, temporarily at least, enlist foreign experts to aid in the organization and direction of the enterprises until the Chinese are able to furnish the administrative staff as well as the labor required, and must attract the coöperation of foreign capital. Despite the wealth and business ability of the Chinese, a period of education and readjustment must elapse before they will be prepared to employ their efforts and funds in the channels of modern financial organization. One of the vital elements in this process will be the creation of a new business morale which will involve the elimination of the whole system of "squeeze" and the creation of confidence of the Chinese in one another for ability and integrity in business affairs. Furthermore, adequate native capital cannot become available until sufficient progress has been made in the exploitation of the nation's natural resources in order to produce it. For a time, therefore, China must be almost entirely dependent upon foreign capital, and

for a much longer period investments from abroad will be necessary to supplement native funds.

As it is a fundamental postulate that the development of China must be under Chinese control and for the welfare of China, the nation must be able to furnish such guarantees of political stability, of business integrity, and of interest returns as will warrant foreign capital in making investments in China quite independently of the respective foreign governments and their special political interests. These conditions will require, among other things, that the enterprises to be undertaken first shall be those which can be made most promptly productive on so large a scale as to yield surplus capital for the prosecution of more difficult schemes until such time as they too may become paying propositions.

These considerations point to railroads as the first undertakings to be launched. This conclusion is supported by political reasons. The security of the independence, integrity, and international standing of China is dependent upon the development of national unity and solidarity which in turn require adequate means of transportation and communication to bring every section of the nation into easy, quick, and cheap intercourse with every other section, and especially to enable prompt and direct communication between the central government and local authorities. By contributing to efficient policing, railroads will aid in the establishment and maintenance of law and order. The disbandment of vast numbers of unnecessary soldiers will create a dangerously large body of unemployed which could also be provided for by their employment in construction work, thus transforming them from a menacing and expensive liability into a productive asset to the nation. One further political consideration is that railroads can be utilized to open new lands for colonization by the surplus population from the thickly settled districts. As these new lands are developed they will become better sources of revenue for the railroads and contribute both to the nation's food supply and to the nation's wealth.

It would seem, therefore, that the plan of development should begin with the pushing out of railway lines in various directions from terminals in the more thickly populated regions on navigable waters into the interior to tap new lands and undeveloped resources which shall be most quickly and easily accessible, priority being given to those lines which can with reasonable ease, speed, and assurance of productivity be developed into trunk lines which shall bind the most populous sections of the country together, such as a line which should connect the rich and populous province of Szechuan with Hankow (and hence Peking) and Shanghai, or with Canton. Not a mile of rails should be laid except on lines which will be assured portions of a comprehensive, national railway system. In selecting lines for earliest construction it will be necessary to arrange to tap convenient and adequate supplies of coal and iron and other materials essential for the construction and operation of the railways, so that plants may be erected and the needed supplies produced and manufactured in China. This will save in costs by cheaper

labor, by less expense for transportation, and by eliminating foreign profit. The utilization of native labor power both in the mines and in the factories will be a step in the industrial readjustment.

While construction must be carried on gradually over a considerable period of years as funds and materials can be made available, the main lines of the general plan must be determined immediately, and the complete detailed plan arrived at as a result of careful scientific surveys not merely for the selection of the actual routes but even more for the ascertainment of the distribution of natural resources and of those other factors which must enter into consideration in determining the most advantageous locations for the routes.

Contemplated as a whole such a scheme for a railway system of possibly 100,000 miles for the Chinese Empire seems so appalling in cost as to be impracticable. It may be recalled, however, that fifty years ago, the United States with a larger area and a population only one-tenth that of China had but one transcontinental railroad and a total mileage of only 60,000, but since then, while the population has grown to be somewhat more than a quarter of China's, there have been constructed more than 200,000 miles of railways including more than a half-dozen transcontinental lines. In a single three-year period (1886, 1887, 1888) the United States constructed over 27,000 miles of new roads; and in the interval from 1900 to 1915 its railway capitalization was increased \$10,000,000,000. If the Chinese Empire were to be given a railway system in the same ratio to area as that of the United States it would require 350,000 miles, and if in the same ratio to population, 1,000,000 miles would be necessary. So China may assuredly look forward to the creation of a railway system of at least 100,000 miles in the next generation as not merely a desideratum but as an entirely practicable task of the highest necessity for the nation. It should also be observed that the United States, not as a government, but in privately owned and managed business enterprises, was a debtor nation to Europe down to so recent a date as 1914. China may, therefore, reasonably look forward to a considerable period as a debtor nation, but the indebtedness should be a matter of private, not of public, finances.

The development of rivers and canals into a system of inland waterways to furnish cheap transportation is easily practicable for China as well as desirable. The Yangtse is even more important in its potentialities for China than is the Mississippi for the United States because it can be made navigable for ocean-going vessels for 630 miles, up to Hankow in the very heart of the country, and for vessels of lighter draft for at least a thousand miles further. Half the nation's population is located in close proximity to this great waterway. Other rivers, the Grand Canal, and lesser canals when improved will easily furnish the nation with an almost perfect system for inland water transportation. The creation of this system can readily be made to serve an additional purpose

of the highest importance for China in providing at the same time protection from the floods which have constantly devastated vast districts from time immemorial. The system can do even more than afford flood-protection, it can effect the reclamation of considerable areas of advantageously located fertile lands which have never been utilizable.

China also needs suitable provision for coastwise and foreign trade. This will require both the improvement of its present ports and the creation of new ones. It will also require the development of a Chinese merchant marine of modern construction to handle all its internal and coastwise trade and a reasonable proportion of its foreign trade. A fair estimate would thus give China merchant shipping amounting to at least 10,000,000 tons. To create and maintain this shipping will require the development of an extensive shipbuilding industry, while not only the harbor construction and improvement of inland waterways but also railway building will require enormous amounts of cement which will necessitate the early creation of extensive plants for its production.

Another great item in a system of transportation is highways, both trunk lines of metaled roads for motor traffic and good dirt roads as adjuncts thereto. These roads with their bridges and causeways will utilize vast amounts of labor and of materials, since the highway mileage will necessarily be several-fold that of the railway mileage.

Closely related to highway construction will be the development in the cities of the customary systems of public utilities, the several varieties of tram, water, sewage, and lighting systems.

The establishment of adequate means of communication will require in addition to provision for postal service over the railway, highway, and shipping lines, the creation of telegraph, telephone, and wireless systems.

The undertakings which have been outlined will all be recognized as of indispensable importance to the development of China to a parity with western nations. The demand for labor to carry out this vast programme of construction will be of the greatest significance in tiding the nation over the labor crisis which will be inevitable in the transition from the man-power, hand-work stage to the electricity, steam, and machine stage of production. This will be the practical result for these enterprises will in themselves, as has been seen, require the establishment of vast factory enterprises on the modern basis.

There will be little delay in the demand for house construction on modern lines, for larger amounts and new types of articles of wearing apparel, and for a multitude of other articles of modern utility so that China will soon be, through a natural development, requiring and creating a complete factory system of production on western lines. Such a development is not a dream of a distant future, it is a process already begun. Whether this movement shall merely follow the same lines as in Western nations and bring the same resultant evils, or whether China will be able

to learn from the failures as well as the successes of occidental nations how to organize its industrial life with proper consideration for the human rights of the workman is of infinite importance. Fortunately there are some significant evidences of both purpose and effort to pursue the better course. It is unfortunate, on the other hand, that there are foreign controlled factories in China which are setting the wrong example owing to the freedom from statutory constraints to observe the moral law.

These vast economic projects for the progress and welfare of his nation were fully set forth in a remarkable volume, *The International Development of China*, published in 1920 by Dr. Sun Yat Sen, but in that work he did not enter into the discussion of the deeper problems of whose importance no one is, perhaps, more keenly aware than he. Still it is precisely these problems which China must attack as a means to attaining its economic development as well as definite ends in the building of the new and better China.

An immediate pre-requisite to the material development of the country is the creation of a sound and uniform currency system and of adequate banking facilities. These are not merely desirable as convenient means for carrying on the money transactions necessary in the construction of the railways and in all the other enterprises already discussed, but they are also essential to attracting foreign capital to invest in Chinese undertakings and to encouraging the employment of native capital in the vast enterprises for the nation's development.

A single currency system of uniform value throughout a nation is not merely an enormous convenience in transacting a nation's business by removing the necessity for incessant calculations of exchange and discounts, but it is indispensable for the maintenance of certainty, stability, and honesty in the conduct of all business dealings. Furthermore, it is hopeless to expect the issuance of an adequate amount of currency for the nation's business until a suitable standard has been discovered and given the sanction of established authority to assume not merely its acceptance but its uniform employment throughout the country.

Today banking is to the Chinese a method of gambling rather than a means of doing business. Foreign banking institutions established in China are of greater utility and security, but they are based on the laws and the interests of their respective countries and only incidentally serve the needs of China. These foreign institutions, as recent experiences have shown, are, moreover, far from affording the needed assurances of security and stability or even honesty. So essential are absolutely sound and adequate banking facilities to the conduct of the world's business, that China cannot expect to direct its own economic life or even develop it on any considerable scale unless it succeeds in creating a satisfactory and nation-wide banking system, definitely under its own control.

Difficult will be the creation of sound, uniform, national currency and banking systems to facilitate the conduct of business and the exchange of com-

modities, more serious and more necessary will be the establishment of a single medium for the exchange of ideas. A single accepted form of speaking and writing one language, or even the use of a single language is not indispensable to nationality and to nation-wide undertakings but a uniform medium of communication is so highly convenient and economical as to be extremely desirable. In Shanghai I asked a Chinese gentleman to telephone to the Chinese garage for me. To my astonishment he used English to communicate the order, and then apologized to me because the native of Shanghai at the garage could not understand his Chinese for he spoke the Pekinese dialect. China needs to do what various European countries found it useful to do centuries ago, to adopt a standard form of the national language both for speech and for writing.

This step, will, almost inevitably, involve another action, the simplification of the language especially in its written form. At present the literary forms of Chinese are so complicated and cumbersome as to require excessive time and effort for their mastery. Westerners will naturally assume that the Chinese should adopt alphabetical writing preferably in the Roman form. That, however, would not be so simple as might be presumed. The Chinese are aware of the need and of the difficulties of the problem, and have already been making interesting experiments to discover a practicable solution.

The successful establishment of a uniform medium for the exchange of ideas throughout the country ought to aid materially in the solution of the more intricate and subtle problems of establishing national solidarity. To secure the general use of such an accepted medium and to utilize it for the promotion of all forms of national life, interest, and activity will require two other great undertakings, the establishment of an educational system and the extensive utilization of the press in journalism, literature, and science.

The experience of the United States has furnished the most convincing evidence of the usefulness of the public schools in training a people to the use of a single language and of their power in moulding national character. A modicum of education for all the people, moreover, has come to be recognized in all progressive countries as essential for both the individual and for the nation.

The establishment of a complete educational system cannot be achieved by fiat or in a brief period of time. Not only will the expense be too great to be provided at once, but a long period of time will also be necessary to train the requisite corps of teachers. The process must be gradual and not even the lapse of a generation but more probably of a century will be required for the establishment in all the various circumscriptions of the schools of the several grades and kinds adequate to minister to the whole population. The experience of Japan and of the Philippines, not to mention western countries, affords convincing evidence of the slowness of the process even under favorable conditions. The successful establishment of an educational system is, furthermore, dependent

upon the growth of the demand for it—the people must come to the realization that it yields a valuable return which is worth paying for.

The beginning should be made by the establishment of government standards for schools of the several grades. Then communities should be granted some form of encouragement at national expense for undertaking the expense of maintaining schools of the grade and number suited to their respective needs. Admission to the schools should, at first, be placed on a competitive basis, as is the practice in the case of the higher schools in Japan, so that the limited facilities that can be made available at the outset shall be used by those fittest to profit from them. In these ways the burden of expense will be assumed gradually and the people will be taught to appreciate education as a valuable privilege.

As the existence of a considerable class of highly trained persons for leadership in the multiform activities of modern life and of an adequate corps of teachers is a national rather than a local asset, the national government should extend special encouragement to the provinces for the foundation and maintenance of universities, teachers' training colleges, and normal schools. The relations between the government of the United States and the several states in the maintenance of the state universities under the Morrill Act is an illustration of the practice suggested and a proof of its value.

The publication and circulation of an abundant supply of newspapers, magazines, and books is almost as essential as the maintenance of a school system in educating a nation, especially for the conduct of the varied activities which people must manage as collective or coöperative enterprises for the promotion of general social, economic, and political welfare. Unlike the school system, however, this development must necessarily, if it is to attain the best results, depend upon individual initiative and not governmental control or support. On the other hand, toward it government has the negative duty of imposing no restriction not essential to the safety of society upon the free activity of individual enterprise in these fields. In one way, government can and should encourage these free activities, that is by affording the cheapest possible conditions for the publication and circulation of books and periodicals. Taxation on the materials or processes involved is contrary to the interests of the government itself and of society.¹

All that has been said hitherto has been based on the assumption of the existence and normal functioning of a national government. As a prerequisite, then, to the achievement of all the other needed or desired results, China must have a government firmly grounded on some basis of constitutional right so that it can and shall command respect at home and abroad—a government which shall have the authority, the will, and the power to discharge the function of

government in maintaining law and order throughout the empire and in conducting the various enterprises already discussed for the promotion of the national welfare.

Whether the future government of China should be monarchical or republican, whether military or federal, is of minor significance, but it is all important that its rightful authority should be above question and that its powers should be effective throughout the nation. National integrity and national sovereignty are essential, fundamental. Without them some Chinese may prosper, but only with them can the welfare of all Chinese be advanced or even assured. The future government of China must be Chinese, free from any taint of control or influence by any outside nation or group of powers. Any other condition can be fraught only with peril and disaster for the Chinese and for other nations. The largest single unit of population in the world can only be safe for itself and for the world when it is absolutely independent and its own government is sovereign.

The establishment of a lawful government with the power to maintain order and to enforce its authority throughout the whole nation being prerequisite to all other measures for national progress, it is obviously the first and highest obligation upon all loyal and intelligent Chinese to devote themselves unremittingly to the achievement of this end. If any despair of their country's case, let them study the situation of the United States in 1783 and observe out of what chaos and despair the great American nation has grown. Surely the great Chinese people with their four millenniums of proud history are capable of lifting their country out of the slough into which it has fallen.

Outside nations will do well to remember their own case and respect China's rights while it is passing through its present crisis. Let England remember the significance for its own progress of its years of turmoil between 1640 and 1689. Let France recall its revolutionary career from 1789 to 1871. Even the United States should not forget its turbulent situation from 1763 to 1789 and still more recently in its great civil war and the ensuing period of reconstruction. Their own experiences should teach these and other nations the futility and peril of meddling with another nation which is passing through a period of domestic upheaval and readjustment.

Some will question whether the Chinese have the necessary qualities to lead their nation safely through the wilderness to the promised land: some will vigorously deny that the Chinese possess such potentialities. The writer is of the opinion that a careful diagnosis would result in pronouncing China as sound today as England was in 1649, or France in 1799, or the United States in 1783. All questionings or denials of Chinese power of recuperation narrow down, in final analysis, to the moral question whether the Chinese can have confidence in one another, whether they can have confidence in themselves to guide their nation's future, and whether they can command the confidence of other nations in their

¹ The writer is here referring not to general property or income taxes, but to customs duties and excises, which are special in character and not general in their incidences.

ability to be satisfactory partners in the society of nations.

Hostile critics and friends of China agree in denouncing the all-pervading system of "squeeze" as the root of evil in the nation. Every Chinese governs his actions with an eye single to what he can get out of each transaction, or at least he is suspected of so doing. No one has any confidence that any one else will act from disinterested motives. No individual or official can perform a public act without incurring the suspicion that the act was performed for the advancement in some way of his own interest, and in too many cases there has been some basis for such distrust.

Though western nations can not raise clean hands and bid China emulate their practice, they can bid China consider the necessity which rests upon her to seek her own safety and welfare in rooting out the evils of "squeeze" and distrust and to replace them with the practice of considering public office a public trust and of placing national above personal interest. Indeed, China need turn to western nations for neither example nor doctrine, but to conform her own practice to the best precepts of her own great ethical teachers. Were the officials of China today from the highest to the humblest to adopt each for himself a self-denying ordinance with reference to "squeeze" and covenant with himself to govern his official acts solely with reference to the national interest it would effect the most salutary and successful revolution imaginable for the nation. Until such a revolutionary process is initiated the future of China will remain doubtful.

There are evidences that the needed change has begun. The case has been diagnosed, the nature and cause of the disease have been discovered and the curative remedy is known. That is some progress, but it is of greater significance that Chinese are learn-

ing that Chinese can act disinterestedly, that they can perform public services without lining their own pockets and that such men alone can effectively serve the nation in some important posts at least.

When such true patriots shall control the government of China the nation will soon acquire confidence in itself; it will have the moral power to fight its own battles in the competition of nations; it will no longer need to look to some elder brother nation to protect its interests in an international conference.

When it becomes true of the nation's public servants that "the word of a Chinese is as good as his bond" then other nations will have confidence in China, claims to exercise ex-territoriality or to supervise the customs administration will forthwith cease to be necessary or justifiable, and China will cease to be the toy of international bankers.

It has been seen that the rehabilitation of China involves many and vast problems and that underlying them all is the necessity for moral regeneration. It remains, therefore, to inquire what are the most important influences at work to encourage and promote that reformation. Four such may be noted: the disinterested acts of other nations in dealing with China, few as they have been; the conduct of western enterprises for philanthropic work and for the relief of the unfortunate in China; the education of Chinese in other lands, even though too few of them return to serve their country disinterestedly; and the training of Chinese in Christian schools and colleges established in China. The influence of these activities and of some, at least, of those who have benefited from such training are everywhere recognized as the hopeful factors in China's situation. Those who would promote China's welfare will recognize the desirability of increasing the number, activity, and influence of these forces which are already acknowledged as effective agencies for their purpose.

Personal Traits of President Andrew Jackson

BY FRANK J. KLINGBERG AND ANDREW JACKSON

The Jackson Day dinner given each year on January 8th all over the United States in honor of the former President is an event of great National significance. The real Patron Saint of the Democratic Party is Andrew Jackson: in the popular imagination he is the chief outstanding character between Washington and Lincoln, and one of the three or four really well-known characters in American History.

While the political career of this extraordinary man is a common possession, his personal traits and the careers of his contemporaries have only recently arrested attention. People were interested either in the period of the Founders of our Republic or in the Civil War. The tendency was to neglect these wonderful middle years. Now interest is shifting more largely into this part of our national life. The letters of Nicholas Biddle, the great champion of the National Bank, the diary of President Polk, and the

autobiography of President Van Buren, all recently published, throw light upon the interesting personalities of this time, including Jackson. Excellent biographies are appearing and historians are busily ploughing the field. In this fascinating period the great problems were the internal ones. Although Jackson was an aggressive president and ready to take a high tone in foreign affairs as in the settlement of the French claims, his two administrations witnessed no annexation of new territory and foreign problems were singularly few. Such questions as the re-charter of the National Bank, internal improvements, the spoils system, nullification, public land policies, the tariff, and many others engaged the attention of Americans. Indeed, never in our national existence has public life been more intense, with such men as Webster, Clay, Calhoun and Benton playing prominent parts.

The intensity, the vigor, the earnestness, the patriotic fervor and even the ruthlessness of Andrew Jackson are traits that have often been discussed but certain opposite and even conflicting characteristics are less thoroughly understood. Recently published materials, together with some hitherto unused manuscripts in the possession of the great-grandson of the former President, also named Andrew Jackson, make it possible to tell about the charming side of this unique man's character.

Most interesting was his devoted attachment to his wife, Rachel. Mrs. Jackson was a woman of great personal charm, and the President's letters to her abound in affectionate phrases. In one letter, dated May 5, 1824, written from Washington, while he was a Congressman, he says: "I feel grateful to an all-ruling providence for a continuation of your good health. Whilst I regret exceedingly my detention here uselessly, I pray you to dispell all gloomy thoughts—in a few days I hope we will again be united, never to be separated—no earthly thing shall induce me to leave you." Then follow some interesting comments on legislation of that time: "I always believed I never was designed for a legislator. I am sure I was not in days like these, whence many, very many, display, as appears to me, a great want of National feeling and confine their powers solely to the section of country they represent, whilst others are endeavoring by a system of log rolling, intrigue, and management to thwart the will of a majority, and by long and useless speeches to weary out Congress; and thereby defeat the Tariff Bill, which if judicially arranged in detail, is calculated to benefit the best interests of our country, and increase our revenue to meet our national debt; it is this subject that has and still detains me here. I shall leave here so soon as this Bill is acted upon—before I cannot.

My love to all and believe me to be your affectionate husband,

Andrew Jackson."

Writing from Washington, February 27, 1824, to his wife, Andrew Jackson expresses these tender sentiments:

"On yesterday I received your kind letter of the 9th instant. As you have requested, will write you often. I am happy everything progresses well with you and that your health is good; that there is nothing on your mind to trouble and perplex it except my absence; this, my love, a few more weeks will dispell by my return, although I cannot say with positiveness when I will be able to leave here, but hope by the middle of April—be assured that I will not remain one day longer than I can help. . . . How grateful I am to Providence for the competency He has blessed us with. Should it be his pleasure to call me on before you, what a consolation to a dying bed to reflect that I did not leave you dependent upon an ungrateful world. . . . I thank you for your prayers sent up for my preservation and health; may mine for you be first heard."

In a letter dated April 2, 1824, he writes:

"My dear wife: Major Eaton on yesterday showed me your letter to him. It gave me much pleasure to be informed of your continued good health, may it continue. . . . Say to Andrew and Lynchoya¹ I hope to be home soon, when I shall expect to find they all have much improved. My love to the young ladies who may be with you, and accept the prayers of your affectionate husband for your preservation and health until his return.

Yours affectionately,

Andrew Jackson."

Jackson's tenderness toward his wife was shown in his willingness to gratify her in every way; this is to be seen particularly in his building a church near the Hermitage so that she would not have far to go for worship. Also, his constant solicitude about her health and general welfare is one of the most charming things in the life of this man of iron. She was not a strong woman, and would have enjoyed the quiet life of the Hermitage. When news of the election reached their home, Mrs. Jackson said: "Well, for Mr. Jackson's sake, I'm glad; for my own part I never wished it." A great fête was planned for her departure, but the evening before the banquet she died, leaving her husband to proceed to the White House alone, a broken-hearted man. Sarah, the wife of his adopted son, and the wife of a near relative, Emily Donelson, devoted themselves to Jackson during his remaining years. The former kept a home for him at the Hermitage and the latter became mistress of the White House. In his will he wrote regarding Sarah: "This gift and bequest, is made for my great affection for her—as a memento of her uniform attention to me, and kindness on all occasions, and particularly when worn down with sickness, pain, and debility. She has been more than a daughter to me and I hope she will never be disturbed in the enjoyment of this gift and bequest."

Reference to his deceased wife is to be found in a letter written from Washington, October 21, 1832, to his daughter-in-law:

"My dear Sarah: I reached this place on last Friday evening and received your and Andrew's affectionate letters of the 7th inst. I would have replied to them yesterday but the crowd was such that I could not get one moment to myself. . . . Sarah, I regretted most of all being prevented from the continued company of the melancholy pleasure which I had fondly anticipated of visiting with you and Andrew alone, the tomb of my dear departed wife. I had a wish to have had some conversation with both upon that subject—there was no fit opportunity, but when you visit me in the winter I trust we will be more to ourselves, when the subject will be recalled by me."

Most noteworthy, because much more unusual, were the relations between Andrew Jackson and his adopted son, also named Andrew Jackson, whose wife Sarah has been referred to above. No father ever took greater interest in his own child than did

¹The Indian boy to whom Jackson gave shelter.

the victor of the Battle of New Orleans in this son. This interest extended even to young Andrew's courtships. While the President was busy in Washington, he found time on May 19, 1839, to write this letter, illustrative of the manners of the time, to Major Francis Smith:

"Dear Sir: This will be handed to you by my son, by whom I take occasion to tender to you my thanks for your kind attention to him on his late tour to the north.

"I am fearful he has committed an error; if he has, I trust you will ascribe it to his youth, diffidence and inexperience, and allow him to make atonement for it for which purpose I send him to you. He has made known to me, since his return, the attachment he has formed for your amiable daughter, which he informs me has been expressed to her and if not reciprocated, has at least won her favorable opinion. He has erred in attempting to address your daughter without first making known to you and your lady his honorable intentions and obtaining your approbation, but he has been admonished of this impropriety and he now awaits upon you to confess it. I find his affections are fixed upon her, and if they are reciprocated, with your approbation, that he looks upon the step which would follow their sanction as the greatest assurance of his happiness; mine, since the bereavement that the loss of my dear wife has inflicted upon me, has almost wholly vanished, except that which flows from his prosperity.

"He has been reared in the paths of virtue and morality by his pious and amiable Mother, and I believe has walked steadily in them; the only hope by which I look to the continuation of my name; and has a fortune ample enough with prudence and economy, and more than enough without them. With these prospects he presents himself again to your daughter. If you have any objections I am sure you will with frankness communicate them to him, when he will withdraw from any further suit and desire only to be classed with your and her friends. I mistake your character if in thus approaching you either he or myself run the least hazard of being misunderstood. It has been a rule with me through life not to permit the forms of ceremony to prevent a frank expression of my feelings upon a subject which touches those of others.

I will soon be left alone as Major A. I. Donelson and family are preparing to go to Tennessee upon a visit to their disconsolate mother. In their absence I cannot bear to be separated long from my son. Should his anticipations not be disappointed, any arrangements for their completion will be at your pleasure, and upon his return to me he will be prepared to meet them.

With a tendering of my salutations to your amiable lady and daughter, believe me most respectfully

Your servant

Andrew Jackson"

Some time later Andrew Jackson, Jr., married a different young lady, Sarah Yorke, a Quaker girl, who has been referred to a number of times as the

devoted daughter of Jackson's declining years. Between the battle-loving Scotch Irish Presbyterian and the gentle Quaker girl there developed a most touching affection.

Andrew Jackson, Jr., was a faithful and obedient stepson, but he was not an able business man and constantly involved himself and his father in debt. Almost innumerable illustrations of the patience of the elder Jackson might be taken from the letters that have been preserved. The father always paid the bills, adding occasionally a mild reproof. One instance of the foster-father's tact is to be found in a letter of October 19, 1833. After mentioning a number of things the President continued:

"Mr. Hart waited upon me the other day and presented me an invoice and order for the tools which he said you had ordered. I found from looking over the bill which amounts to \$62.00, that the tools are of the finest kind that a cabinetmaker uses, and the box made of mahogany and charged to \$20.00. Finding the old gentleman was bound for the whole, I directed him to have it well boxed, marked 'Andrew Jackson, jr., Nashville, Tennessee,' have them sent to Mr. Toland, and on his receipt for the box of tools, I would pay him the amount. My dear Andrew, remember my advice—never buy anything that is useless or that you have not immediate want of and particularly when you do not pay for it. These tools are not for the coarse work, not to be used by negroes, therefore I would suppose useless for the farm. Be this as it may, I could not permit your name and character to suffer for the amount, and only now name it by way of advice to you in future. I repeat again my dear son, buy nothing but what is useful to yourself and wanted by your family. This is a proper economy for you entering into life to observe—pursue it and you will never be encumbered with debt and will die independent with the pleasing reflection that you have done justice to all men, leaving none to say you have lived upon the labor of others and left debts unpaid."

Another letter, written while Jackson was President, dated February 16, 1834, shows the same generosity, scarcely to be expected in a great fighter. "Dear Andrew:

In answer to your last letter I informed you I would take up your note given to Mr. Webb, Cumberland, Maryland. On yesterday it was presented and I directed the Cashier of the Metropolis Bank to pay it, which is done, and as soon as I have time to send and have my bank book brought up, I will forward your note to you cancelled. I directed him in my letter to write you that I had taken up the note and direct you not to send any funds to meet it. My son, it would have saved me some trouble and not a little mortification had you drew on me from Cumberland. I hope it will not affect your credit, my son, still it was calculated hereafter to affect that confidence in your promises and punctuality that might be injurious hereafter. I have made it a rule in early life to be punctual in all my engagements. I have found the benefit from it, when others who had not attended to it, worth double the means I

possess, could not get money without sponsors, I never was asked for security. My son, I wish you to establish the same rule, never promise without a punctual compliance, and never go in debt unless for real necessary wants, without knowing you can meet it at the day, and when you promise, be sure at any sacrifice to meet it at the day. This has been my rule and it has worked well thus far through life."

Again, in a letter written to his son August 10, 1833, Jackson reveals his unfailing kindness and thoughtfulness:

"I have just received your letter and Sarah's enclosed, of the 8th instant. I am happy to find that you have made arrangements for the furniture and that Sarah has completed the little purchases which will be paid by Mr. Toland, whose bill I will pay on sight.

I hasten to send a check to Mr. Toland for one hundred dollars *for you*; he will pay that sum to you, anxious that this should reach you that no little expense may remain unpaid for Philadelphia. I must close, requesting you to present Sarah and my little Rachel with a kiss and my respects to all of her relatives. Expecting you soon, I remain, your affectionate father

Andrew Jackson."

An indulgent letter was written from Washington, January 8, 1833, to Andrew Jackson, Jr.

"My former letters advised you that you are authorized to draw on me for a certain amount to close the contract with Alexander Donelson about his lot of land, and also for any other real wants, you may have, and to pay for the pork. Should you want for funds for your journey here, or pocket money at home, before the cotton is sent to market and sold, you can draw upon me for the same, keeping in view the amount so drawn for to meet these two last objects must not exceed five hundred dollars."

The rare, easy-going, and hopeful character of Andrew Jackson, Jr., can be seen in a letter which he wrote to his father from the Hermitage, May 25, 1834. In this letter he comments upon the frosts and speaks of the poor stand of cotton, saying that it will make no more than half-crops and refers to the sale of a farm:

"I hope we will come out yet as authorized. I drew upon you in the first part of this month for \$600.00 and a day or two ago for \$1400.00. . . . I have been thinking my father if we get hard run, we had better sell the place again. Mr. James Sanders will buy it I have no doubt, for he told me the other day that he felt disposed to buy it. What say you to it? I have paid off nearly all our home debts and when I get Judge Overton's note paid and the balance of Pearson's, I will settle all acts. . . . I pray God to protect and preserve you through all your difficulties and trying scenes. The papers, as far as I can learn, are indignant at the Senate's conduct. I can answer for Tennessee at all events. You will come out triumphant and that corrupt faction will be put down. Take care of yourself my dear father.

I pray that Congress may soon adjourn and that we may see you among us at your delightful Hermitage.

Your affectionate son

Andrew Jackson Jr."

Andrew Jackson's love for children can be seen in the interest that he took in the children of his son and those of his nephew, Andrew Jackson Donelson, as well as in many other cases. In fact, his paternal instincts were so fully developed that he could not bear to see an Indian child perish, but, as already mentioned, brought one from an Indian war to his own home and saw the child grow to manhood. Innumerable stories are told regarding Jackson's extreme interest in children—they were with him in the White House, on the White House lawn, in the Hermitage by night and by day.

Jackson was a splendid neighbor, more than ready to do his full part in the community, but also ready to resent any encroachment upon his rights. Again and again he helped his neighbors with loans of money, bought silver and other articles from them when they were in distress, and loaned money to total strangers. The idea of the sanctity of private property was very highly developed in Andrew Jackson and among his letters are most amusing examples of bitter language and recriminations with certain neighbors over the placing of gates and injuries given and received by his negroes.

It is well to remember that Jackson belonged to the Scotch-Irish Presbyterian element of our country, that he was highly individualistic, too ready to take offence, and that some of his conflicts were considered disreputable at the time of their occurrence. His wife spent her life trying to make him more religious. A very interesting letter bearing on this topic is a letter from the Rev. W. A. Scott, who was the pastor in the local Presbyterian church. The vigor of the political opinions of this letter is significant of the interest in public affairs taken by the clergy at this time. The letter, dated November 9, 1839, reads:

"Gen'l Andrew Jackson, Ex-President of the U. S., America:

Very dear sir:

I am denied the pleasure of seeing you this evening and of worshiping the Most High God with you on His Holy Sabbath. This I regret the more deeply as my opportunities to serve the beloved little flock of the Hermitage are so limited, and as the inclemency of the approaching winter will no doubt prevent many from attending for months to come, who have been able to attend during the summer. But He who came to redeem us has given us an example; in all our trials and disappointments Holy and Righteous Father, not my will but Thine be done." The minister speaks of his own ill health and then continues—

"I trust that you are preserved in health, rejoicing in the onward progress of those great Republican principles in the defense of which you have spent an illustrious life, and in the fresh experience of the goodness and grace of Him whom you serve and

whose you are. I congratulate you and my country most sincerely and devoutly on the recent triumph of Republicanism over Federalism and Corruption. There should be a National Thanksgiving.

"You doubtless, Dear Sir, can testify from happy experience with me how precious the Sacred Scriptures are in sickness and affliction! How full of consolation! What a resource in the hour of need! What a shelter from the storm! What a solace in the seasons of distress and in the day of Peril! How sweet the promises, how free, yet how liberal."

After more exhortation of this kind, the minister concludes: "Do me the kindness to give my kind Christian salutation to Mrs. Jackson and family, accept Dear Sir, continued assurances of the sincere personal, political and Christian attachment and earnest prayers of your

Very humble servant for Christ's sake.

W. A. Scott"

General Jackson wrote on the back of this letter, "My dear friend the Rev. Mr. Scott. To be preserved and often read to my dear grandchildren. Andrew Jackson."

Throughout life Andrew Jackson was a good business man, and built up two fortunes. The second one was largely lost before the time of his death, but even at that time the Hermitage estate was one of great value. As might be expected, Jackson was most scrupulous and careful in all his business dealings. No bill was ever paid unless it was presented to him in a most carefully itemized way, and it was then carefully receipted. The following is an illustration of one of the smaller bills:—

General Andrew Jackson, Dr.

to	
John E. Linn	
To making clothes for Andrew Jackson	
Hutchins	\$3.00
" Velvet 3/—cloth 1/6—twist 9d—sleeve	
lining 9d	1.00
" Cambric 9d12½
" making a coat for Charles	
buttons 7/6—silk 3/ twist 1/6	4.50
To making a coat for Andrew I. D.	2.00
" Silk 3/—velvet 3/—buttons 4/6—linen	
1/6 bombazett 3/	4.00
" making roundabout	2.50
" velvet 3/—buttons 1/6 silk, thread, and	
twist 3/	2.00
" Pantaloons 7/6— lining 1/6—buttons 9d	
silk thread 1/6	1.25
"	1.87½
	—
Total	22.25

November 23RD 1820 Received of Andrew Jackson a check on the B. Bank of the State of Tennessee at Nashville in full of the above account

J. W. Linn"

Among the former President's effects still preserved in the family are bundles of such bills and such instances of his painstaking work in checking over and preserving receipts. The receipts make a curious commentary on the prices, arrangements for travel and the stopping at hotels with troops of horses and servants to feed.

George Washington was equally meticulous over his accounts and quarreled as did Jackson when overcharged. This pre-occupation was not petty, but seems to have been a part of the notable efficiency, large vision, and wide range of powers of these men.

Fields for Research in Southern History After Reconstruction

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The history of the South during the period immediately following Reconstruction is a field which has so far been comparatively little cultivated by historians. These years, extending from 1875 to about 1890, which for convenience and unity might be designated as *The beginning of recovery*, have not been marked by the melodramatic incidents which command attention during the earlier period, but the story of the slow, plodding task of up-building, of recovering, of recreating, of sensing and seizing new opportunities is tremendously important and even more inspiring to the student who responds to the call of construction rather than destruction.

It was for the South, as for the nation, a time of breaking away from old war issues, of renouncing old precedents, of discovering new fields of commerce. Credit was to be re-established, and the old planter had to adjust himself as well as his ex-slaves, after the orgy of negro and carpet-bag rule, to a new

economic society. Both shattered wings of the antebellum parties, Whig and Democrat, had been firmly welded into a White Man's party by the blunders and sins of reconstruction. And the leaders of this party, trusted and tried representatives of the old régime, accepting abolition of slavery of course, gave their respective states what they conceived to be demanded by the times: an honest, economical, conservative government. But the economy rendered necessary by negro extravagance seems to have crystallized into a habit of penury until the discontent of the eighties, fostered largely by the agrarian element, culminated in the overthrow of the old régime in 1890. Somehow, during the decade and a half since the old men had resumed control, the new generation was learning to look forward in matters political as well as economic, and not back.

The period has been covered, of course, in a general way by the volumes of the American Nation series,¹

by the *Chronicles of America* series,² and by *The History of North America* series;³ also in a very casual way by the various state histories;⁴ but such works can obviously touch the period only as a part of a larger whole, and, therefore, inadequately. The camera should be focused on the South during the period of change to record the exact processes of change.

I.

The first requirement for a satisfactory understanding of the period is a series of monographs on the political development in each state, comparable to those which already exist for the reconstruction period. We need to study the process of restoration to normal conditions: the reduction of salaries and fees, the passage of new election laws, the funding of the debt, investigation of lower state and county offices, and the re-establishment of credit, confidence and hope—in a word, the work of governmental rehabilitation. But there is also a political tendency to be observed: did the democratic trend which has been traced for us in Virginia⁵ manifest itself in every one of the Southern states? This patient work must be done before the authoritative history which will compare the efforts and successes of the various states can be written.

Other movements and political problems promptly present themselves for consideration:

Third party movements in the South: Causes, &c.

Socialism as a factor in the South. The beginnings and reception accorded to its teachings.

Efforts of the North to break the solid South. This subject might readily trace the attempts from President Hayes's speech in Tennessee in 1877 to the recent trip of President Harding in the fall of 1921.

West Virginia boundary problems. This complex, arising from the creation of West Virginia, has never been completely disentangled.

The strength of civil service reform in the South. The subject suggests investigation of the degree to which civil service found a response in the South, participation of Southerners in the national movement, and results upon the South.

Maryland's efforts to unseat President Hayes. The effort to introduce this long controversy into the courts, and when that attempt failed, to reopen the question in Congress as late as 1878 suggests how long drawn-out was the controversy.

Early methods of depriving the negro of his political functions. A comparative study of methods of fraud, intimidation, and gerrymander to circumvent the Fifteenth Amendment and debar the colored race from jury service has not been made for this first period of restored white rule.

Pledging of the delegates to the national convention. The writer has noted that Maryland pledged her delegates even at this time, a fact which prompts the query of how widely the practice was followed in the South and to what degree it bound the delegates.

Abuse of office by Southern federal officers. Charges are asserted that postmasters converted post-offices into party headquarters, posted irritating placards in the offices, and neglected their duties for private party

work. The exact degree of truth in this assertion might well be determined.

Democratic revenge for reconstruction. Reference is here had to the trial of the Returning-board of 1876 in Louisiana and to the prosecution of Governor Bullock of Georgia and of three republican officials in South Carolina, after the reconstruction issues seemed to have been settled.

Contributions of the South to national statesmanship during her period of recovery. Although the sum total of such contributions must necessarily have been small, debarred as she was from executive posts until 1885, it might be worth while to ascertain the extent and value of the service of Southern senators and representatives in national councils.⁶

II.

The economic field has been more satisfactorily covered than any other by works which treat of the economic development of the South in general,⁷ though so important and so far-reaching is this phase of Southern history that historians have so far done little more than turn the soil. The work of examining the effect of the geographical conditions upon the local history of the individual Southern states⁸ still remains as a primary and fundamental task, except in the cases of Texas and Missouri.⁹ The relation of the geography to history has a peculiar significance during this period of rapid economic development. The long stretch of coast in Florida with varying conditions of ocean and gulf expanse; the nearness to foreign soil; the presence of the everglades, making the peninsula an object of tourist travel as well as a winter resort; the character of the soil; the vast swamps and the climate have all played a part in the political and economic history of this state. The importance of the steady, almost continuous downgrade from the West Virginia coal fields to the Atlantic seaboard, which makes possible the long haul for heavily laden coal trains with a surprisingly low head of steam and correspondingly low cost of transportation, is a well known fact to economic students. Other factors, such as the presence of natural gas to work her glass factories at low cost, the relatively mild climate which keeps low the gas bills for heating even the wretched clapboard houses of the laborers; the gaps in the low mountains at convenient points to promote the communication, will richly repay closer study. The fact that all but four of the Louisiana parishes can be reached by water challenges one to an interesting study of the relation of her water courses to the development of her sugar and rice lands.

A detailed picture should be drawn for us, tracing the very beginnings of quickened industry in the South through the utilization of natural resources, the beginnings of manufacture, and the problem of factory labor. A comparative and chronological study of the rapidity with which the gold, ochres, clay, mica, phosphates, and building stones, as well as the coal and iron, were exploited would serve to show how completely or partially the New South had come into being by 1890 and its relation to the agrarian revolution of that year. A series of economic maps would do well to accompany such a study.

Other subjects which might be suggested are as follows:

Reduction of waste. Probably nothing marks so sternly the creation of new conditions as the contrast between the prodigality of the Old South and the economy of the New. Reference is not had to the utilization of the by-products of the cotton, a subject which has been abundantly exploited, but to the countless other ways in which articles which would have been beneath the consideration of a gentleman of the old régime have been made to yield wealth to his sons and grandsons. Not only is the slack waste of the plantation replaced by strict barter and sale of all the produce of the new farm, but by the sale of the waste products—even the hen-houses yielding their toll. Gone is the old way of killing trees by stripping off the bark and replaced by a strict appreciation of the value of timber; drift logs no longer encumber the streams but are raised and sold; Bermuda grass has become recognized as a valuable fodder; mud holes are no longer allowed to exist as a trap for good cattle to slip and perish in; Spanish moss has a better use in the upholstery of furniture than in the aesthetic adornment of trees; while the syrup left from sugar production, which used to be poured into the streams, is pumped directly into tank cars and transported at low cost to distant markets to be sold as molasses. What of the wastes of rice and tobacco concerning which nothing has been written?

The South as the Truck Garden of the North. To be of most value this subject should extend beyond the narrow confines of 1890 in order to show the recent rapid development through the influence of railroads and refrigerator cars, though the significant, unmistakable beginnings are to be seen between 1866 and 1890.

The share of the North in the recovery of the South. Possibly no subject offers more interest than the effort to fix the amount of Northern capital invested in Southern development, indicative of the faith of the North in the South; the amount of personal direction given by Northern business leaders;¹⁰ and the number of Northern settlers and laborers who actually invaded the South and helped do the work. The assertion has often been made that the South was rebuilt entirely by Southern capital and Southern energy. This probably holds true of Atlanta, but what is true of the rest of the South?

The aid of State Geological Surveys in the development of the South. The knowledge that Georgia already by 1890 had a state survey at work on the streams to aid in the exploitation of gold and marl has prompted the inquiry whether other states had created geological surveys even earlier.

The value of grazing and stock-raising in the South. The cattle industry in Texas and Arkansas¹¹—the Southwest—has been investigated, but its importance in the Old South has not been inquired into beyond the barest facts of sheep-raising on the pine barrens of Georgia and the introduction of Percheron horses and the China hog. How extensive was it? How valuable?

The mountaineers as an economic factor in the

eighties. Investigation could and should determine to what degree the mountain whites entered the mills during the first decade of Southern manufacture and to what degree they were moving onto the farms in the black belt to replace the planter class which was, as we know, slipping out.

Parallel with the last-named subject comes the *Status of labor in the South from 1875-1890.* The purpose of the inquiry would be to determine the number of employees in the factories, whether the evils of woman and child labor, the long hours, the over-crowding, the poor ventilation, and the disproportion between wages and cost of living appeared at once; and how soon the public conscience was awakened to the situation.¹²

Efforts to organize labor in the South. While no achievements at all would seem to have been gained until 1896, a study of the efforts of the Knights of Labor and of the Labor Unions among whites and blacks, together with a consideration of the causes of failure, would seem worth while.

Strikes in the South. The investigator would determine whether strikes in the section under consideration were confined to the railroads; the extent, number, character, and effects of the labor wars of the period.

Bound up with the subject of transportation are half a dozen themes of unusual interest.

The growth of Southern railroads. This subject should, to be most helpful, include a comparison of the various states and sections, and should show the rapidity of expansion,¹³ whether it was a period of expansion of trunk lines or of connecting branches; should prove whether they developed new areas¹⁴ and industries and created new towns; and whether they anticipated the need of transportation.

The change in attitude toward railroads. It is only to be expected that the inducements extended by carpet-bag and negro legislatures should be discontinued, that states would reclaim their land-grants, revoke bonds, and pass legislation hostile to existing companies. But were any inducements offered by cities? by individuals? Did Southern railroads anywhere control the legislatures by 1890?¹⁵ Was there present here also, as in the North, a desire for federal regulation? The reaction on Southern railroads is of interest; did failures result?

The work of Albert Fink in organizing the cotton pool. An intensive study of his consolidation to control competition among the cotton carriers is here suggested.

Inland waterways of the South. The efforts of the impoverished states for their own waterways and even beyond their own boundaries¹⁶ should be supplemented by a study of the efforts for federal aid, expressing itself through numerous conventions and petitions.

The changed status of Southern ports. Any satisfactory treatment of this subject would make a sharp contrast between the old ports, as the Charleston of ante-bellum days, and newly developing points, such as Newport News. The writer would not fail also to

note the slow recovery of other ports, such as New Orleans and Mobile.

Conservatism in internal improvements. Note would be taken of the simplicity of public buildings,¹⁷ of the hesitation with which irrigation and drainage projects were undertaken, while some interpretation of the wisdom of the policy in the light of the facts might be ventured upon.

Exploitation and conservation. The first feeble attempts at conservation may be noted during the close of our period.¹⁸ Although the real awakening to the recklessness and dangers of unrestricted exploitation awaits a much later date, it is worth noting that the first hints in Southern states greatly antedate federal legislation on this subject.

Coastwise trade in the South. The number of men and vessels engaged in the trade, the ship-building promoted thereby, the kind and value of freight transported, the type of vessel, and the importance to the South would become manifest by a comparison with Southern coast trade of the period before the war and with that of the North of this same period.

Bounties in the South, from 1875-1890. The bounties offered by the states to promote certain industries would probably repay investigation.

Economic independence in the South. The Civil War revealed to the South her entire dependence upon the North and upon Europe for her drugs, anesthetics, salt, even the most fundamental of manufactured articles. To what degree has she developed them since or has she continued industries begun during the war period?

III.

Much has been written on the social phases of Southern history, but writers have swept over a wide field and merely scratched the surface in many instances, for a multitude of unanswered questions obtrude themselves. A neglected phase is the movement of population, which calls for treatment from several aspects.

Migration in the South, interstate and intrastate. The investigator would note not only the usual flow of population within the South from east to west, but the extent of the flow from the North and from the border states south; also the shift from plantation to the city.

The exodus from the South. The federal census statistics besides the other sources of information ought to make possible a statement of the number who left the South during this period, the classes represented, the states of their departure, of their ultimate location, and the effects of this migration.

The negro exodus to the North. Any such study would note both the movement of 1879 to Kansas¹⁹ and the movement from North Carolina in 1889.

Federal veterans in the South. Scattered hints make it clear that there were colonies of Northern soldiers who were led for various reasons to settle in the South after the war. Their location and success and the attitude toward them is a subject for investigation.

The efforts of the South for immigrants. The fact that Virginia sent several hundred agents and thou-

sands of pamphlets abroad in 1871, that North Carolina negotiated with the Swiss commerce and colonization society in 1881 and offered bonuses of land; and the fact that Mr. Disston opened negotiations with Sir Charles Reid for English settlers for Florida, would indicate a wealth of material on this interesting question.

*The relation of the Jews to Southern recovery.*²¹

The growth of Southern cities and their problems. The rapidity of growth during this decade and half, the new municipalities, their location with reference to the natural resources, and the methods of meeting the problems of transportation, housing, and sanitation would come within the purview of an article seeking to deal with this problem.

Customs and traditions affected by the Civil War. One illustration of the thought in the mind of the writer might suggest others. The poverty engendered by the war forced the Creole girls of Louisiana out of the convents into the public schools.

Country Town life in the South. The queer mixture of dignified culture and narrow, proud, stagnant provincialism, of which we may still catch glimpses in some remote Southern town, should be recorded. The crude open-air medicine shows contrasted sadly with survival of the medieval tournament jousts which are just now passing from Virginia, Maryland, and West Virginia.²²

A new frontier in the Old South. Much has been written of the progressive movement westward of the frontier, but when one reads of storekeepers in north Georgia supplied with scales to weigh the gold dust brought them for barter by miners, of stage coaches held up on mountain roads, of a wild rush to Anniston, and of mad speculation at Birmingham, one is forced to feel that a reproduction of life of the eighties through the Southern Appalachians could not at least fail to be replete with interest, whether or not the writer is justified in the romantic title here suggested.

Carpet-baggers in the South after carpet-bagging days. It should not be difficult to locate the leading carpet-baggers who stayed on in the South after the native Southerners resumed control of the government,²³ the numbers altogether, and to fix the part they played in the rebuilding, opening up of new industries, and to note the attitude toward them and their children—in a word, their contribution to the state of their adoption.

*The care of defectives and the penal systems of the Southern states from 1875-1890.*²⁴ would reveal these two systems at their very worst.²⁵

A beginning of labor legislation. Slight though it was, there does appear at the close of our period the trend toward protection of labor by legislative enactment. Laws for the inspection of mines, limited hours of labor, restriction of child labor, and the requirement of the provision of seats for women pass before the investigator in rapid review.

Changing social ideals for women. Though even by 1890 a Southern lady was still likely to regard the school-room as the only proper place of employment, the spirit of change was beginning to make itself felt,

the very advanced even daring to breathe the words *woman suffrage*.

Prohibition in the South. This movement, particularly interesting in Georgia, had attained rather remarkable strength by 1890 in many states under the guise of local option.²⁶ The activity of the Women's Christian Temperance Union as a factor in the whole could not well be neglected after 1883.

Voluminous as is the literature on the race question, so complex and serious a question has not yet been exhausted. The following titles are offered as suggestions:

The negro woman just after reconstruction. It would certainly contribute to our understanding of the whole race problem if some research scholar would determine the status of the colored women at this time, their unrest, their efforts at education, and their organization into colored women's clubs.²⁷

Suggestions for a separate negro state,²⁸ *The value of colored conventions*, *Colored relief schemes by negroes themselves*,²⁹ *The negro and the rice plantations*, and *The inapplicability of white standards to the negro* are a few of the many attractive subjects which have presented themselves.³⁰

IV.

We need as the starting point for our understanding of the agricultural history of the South a study of the agrarian conditions in each state during these significant fifteen years which mark the break-up of the plantation system. This exists, I believe, as yet only for Georgia.³¹ Such studies would, naturally, take note of the changes in farming methods: the diversified crops, the use of commercial fertilizer, the appearance of wire fencing, extension of acreage to waste lands and pine clearings, importation of improved varieties of grain and rice, and the introduction of modern light tools instead of the clumsy, heavy implements alone thought secure from breakage in the hands of the indifferent slave. Then also the *State Departments of Agriculture* and experiment stations began their great work.³² *The development of agricultural colleges in the South*³³ with their relationships to the Morrill Act of 1862,³⁴ to the state universities and to the technical schools, and the separate semi-agricultural schools for negroes form a part of the story of the fresh impetus given to farming in this part of the country.

The wild lands of the South ought to intrigue some one's imagination, especially when it is revealed that there were seven and a half million acres in Georgia alone in 1878 yielding no revenue to the owner and none to the state when sold for taxes and yet able to start a scandalous fraud when four men bought up three hundred thousand acres. Add to those acres the swamp land of North Carolina lying idle in the hands of the Board of Education for fifty years, and sixteen million acres unimproved in Florida and one realizes that here lies another fascinating subject.³⁵

V.

Before the authoritative work on education in the South can be written, much intensive study of the program and progress in each state will need to be made in order to secure proper comparisons and balance, even though every state has published some

account of its public school system and although some good monographs have come from the United States Bureau of Education. The work might well begin with a limited period, such as *Educational progress under the conservative régime*. While the picture drawn would show a situation almost unbelievably bad as to buildings, absence of equipment, and inadequately trained teachers, the effort to determine just what had been accomplished by 1890 under the stress of heavy state debts is worth while. This is the period when public school systems were truly put upon their feet, and contrasts with some modern up-to-date remote parishes in Louisiana will serve to show how far we have come, while other counties will show how painfully slow is progress.

In the light of the present discussion over the Smith-Towner Act for the promotion of education, research on the subject, *Proposals for federal aid to education*, would be particularly timely. *The growth of normal schools in the South*, *Mission schools* and *Church colleges of the South*, all await scientific presentation.

The following subjects would still further illuminate the general theme:

*Libraries in the South before 1890.*³⁶

The Southern press during 1875-1890. One would note the number of newspapers and magazines, their provincialism or cosmopolitanism, their tone, influence, and value.

Southern educational conventions. Their influence and value in elevating the standards of education is the point of real value.

VI.

For the person who can become enthusiastic over questions of finance the period offers abundant opportunity for studies on the revenue system in each state during the time when taxation and the sources of revenue was a delicate and vital matter. In addition the following subjects are offered as worthy of study:

The position of the South on the silver issue prior to 1890.

Currency in the South. This is a pertinent question, since there was virtually no specie until 1879.

The single tax movement in the South. No one has so far noted whether the theories of Henry George won any adherents there.

The history of the federal war tax of 1862. The efforts to collect this tax in the South and its ultimate cancellation in 1878 would constitute the material of this inquiry.

Banking institutions in the South, 1875-1890.

VII.

The legalistic and constitutional field of historical inquiry presents a wide list of unsolved problems. The following may prove suggestive:

Amendments to the state constitutions offered during the period of recovery. Were they democratic in trend or the reverse, the number proposed, the number adopted, the number held invalid?³⁷

The office of governor in the Southern states. This theme would involve a study of tendencies, re-election for a second term, comparison in that respect with the ante-bellum South and with the North, prestige

of the governor as to the legislature, and the growth in actual power.

Prestige of the Southern bench. Was the calibre of judges brought back promptly to pre-war standards after the lowering of tone of reconstruction days? Has it been kept out of politics?

The business law of the time.

Constitutional limitations on state and city debts.

Police power in the South during the eighties.

Lobbying as a factor in Southern legislation.

VIII.

A series of biographical monographs on the leaders of the period, to include not only the political characters, but also and more especially the business men to whom must go so largely the credit for the New South, and the journalists whose facile pens kept bright the faith in the regeneration of the South. Here should be listed Wade Hampton of South Carolina; L. Q. C. Lamar of Mississippi, the first southerner to rise to national prominence; Benjamin Tillman of South Carolina; William Mahone, of readjuster fame in Virginia; A. P. Gorman of Maryland, who rose from the position of senatorial page to a seat in that august body and to the control of his state; Francis Nicholls of Louisiana, first native governor of his state after reconstruction; and W. P. Kellogg, last of carpet-bag rulers of Louisiana. But in the list must also appear Henry W. Grady, journalist and orator, ever encouraging the South and interpreting it to the North; Henry Watterson of Kentucky for the same service; William Carter Stubbs of Louisiana for his significant scientific work in promoting the sugar industry at the agricultural experiment station of Louisiana; D. G. Purse of Georgia for his work of agricultural, sanitary, and business development; C. J. Bonaparte for his labors in the Reform League of Maryland, which ended the old régime in that state; and George Foster Peabody of Georgia for his activities in promoting Southern education.

IX.

Religious history of this period, as of most others, has been largely left to the untrained clergyman and awaits the pen of the scientifically trained historian as an almost virgin soil. Furthermore, while the history of sects as a whole has been studied and that of certain sects with special reference to the South, no study has been made, I believe, with special reference to this trying period. It may well be that the subjects added below can be profitably made only after the history of the separate denominations has been traced.

The condition of the church during the transition period. Was there a decline in attendance due to poverty and depression? Was there less church activity? Was the growth of any one sect marked? What was the relation of the church to the social life of the community?

War bitterness reflected in the church. Was war feeling injected into the church in the sermons or on the part of members?⁴³

The struggle of Congregationalism in the South.⁴⁴

Religious life among the negroes. Although a hack-

neyed subject,⁴⁵ no effort has been made to ascertain the effect of the first years of freedom on the colored race.

Lesser creeds in the South after the war. What foothold were new sects and free-thinking societies able to secure? It should be a matter of peculiar interest to observe whether in a naturally conservative society the radicalism which is supposed to obtain after military defeat manifested itself.

X.

Local history presents as many claims for this period as for any other. The history of the larger cities has received some treatment,⁴⁶ that of many has been sketched in a general way, but earnest historians may well consider the merits of this field. The story of Atlanta, rising phoenix-like from her ashes, probably offers the most dramatic tale, but the slow recovery of New Orleans and Charleston against great odds is just as valuable for an insight into the composite New South. The subject, *Corruption in Southern Cities*, suggests a comparison with the sickening record of municipal rottenness in the North at this time.⁴⁷ It is a well established fact that state governments, if unprogressive in the South, were honest. Did a similar integrity mark municipal administration? Many county histories have been perpetrated upon us, good, bad, and indifferent.⁴⁸ It is to be hoped that in the future justice will be done this period of recovery and that all county histories will be written in the scientific spirit. Otherwise a series of period records, similar to those which have appeared for the reconstruction period⁴⁹ will be desirable. The effort to create townships in North Carolina may have been significant and prompts the suggestion, *Changes in local institutions*.

XI.

Most difficult of all fields and probably most worthwhile is that which may be designated as the spiritual field. Just because the material is difficult to obtain and hard to measure does not justify the scholar for neglecting it. The following topics are submitted:

Conservatism in the South up to 1890. We can best gauge the change which has come in the last decades by fully understanding the widespread, deep-rooted, almost religious conservatism of the time,⁵⁰ and the conditions of isolation which had first to be overcome.

The change in character of the Southerner. For the student who delights in pursuing the baffling elements of human nature, this should prove an alluring theme. The early statesman and constitutional lawyer, the pride of the South, was giving place to the business man. Where the father was prodigal, the son was thrifty; where the elder was slow, the younger had push and energy; where the old generation was easy, the new was shrewd. And somewhere into the complex had entered a community spirit, a vision, and an enthusiasm for the New South which partially, at least, compensates for the loss of the finest qualities of the ante-bellum gentleman.

Sectionalism since reconstruction. A study of speeches and votes in congress, together with the Southern press, ought to furnish some basis for

determining whether the Southern members acted as a unit, self-consciously working for the South against the North.⁵¹

The uniting of the sections. Research into this subject would be most profitable if continued from the momentary bursts of good feeling aroused by generous speeches, such as the eulogy of Stevens by L. Q. C. Lamar, through the visits of Northern regiments South and Southern regiments North, to the final consummation of the long desired goal of real unity in the recent World War.⁵²

Expositions as a factor in cementing the bond might be treated as a part of the previous subject or separately.

Finally it scarcely needs to be indicated that a little search would reveal a host of subjects in the history of each Southern state for this period awaiting the patient investigator. Indeed, in culling over the material for this paper the writer found herself thinking with regret of the fine material going to waste because no one cares about this subject in West Virginia and that in Arkansas.

The fields and subjects suggested are of unequal merit. Probably those which should first engage the attention of the members of our craft are the political studies of the democratic movement in each state as fundamental to all later investigation; next in interest and importance come the economic studies; and then the social researches. Among the biographies those concerning the men who helped to build up the country would probably illuminate more than those recording the manoeuvres of politicians. The subjects here sketched, it is probably superfluous to say, are not intended to be exhaustive, but indicate merely the natural resources just beneath the soil of the historical New South awaiting the pick and axe of the research miner.⁵³

⁵¹ E. E. Sparks, *National Development*, and D. R. Dewey, *National Problems*, vols. 23 and 24.

⁵² Holland Thompson, *The New South*, vol. 42.

⁵³ P. A. Bruce, *The Rise of the New South*, vol. 17.

⁵⁴ J. W. Avery, *The History of the State of Georgia, 1850-1881*; J. H. Brown, *History of Texas*; W. G. Brown, *A History of Alabama* (for schools); Fay Hempstead, *Historical Review of Arkansas*; Lowry and McCordle, *History of Mississippi*.

⁵⁵ C. C. Pearson, *The Readjuster Movement in Virginia*.

⁵⁶ The articles by Garland Greer, "Southern Leadership Since the Civil War," *North American Review*, vol. 192, 264-272, and by W. G. Brown, "The South in National Politics," *South Atlantic Quarterly*, vol. IX, 103-115, do not cover this subject. The former is rather a eulogy of Lee, while the latter asserts absence of all Southern influence as a self-evident fact.

⁵⁷ See P. A. Bruce, *The Rise of the New South*, in *The History of North America* series, J. C. Ballagh, *The Economic History, 1865-1910*, vol. VI, in the series, *The South in the Building of the Nation*, published by the Southern Historical Publication Society, and E. M. Banks, *The Economics of Land Tenure in Georgia*, University of Columbia Studies in History, Economics and Public Law.

⁵⁸ Local conditions with national aspects have, of course, been pointed out by Ellen Semple, *American History and its Geographical Conditions*, and by A. P. Brigham, *Geographic Influences in American History*.

⁵⁹ See F. W. Simonds, "Geographical Influences in the Development of Texas," *Journal of Geography*, vol. X,

277-284; F. V. Emerson, "A Geographical Interpretation of Missouri," *Geographical Journal*, vol. XLI, 39-48, 130-145; and F. V. Emerson, "Life Along a Graded River," *American Geographical Society Bulletin*, vol. XLIV, 674-681, 762-768. The above can scarcely be considered as entirely adequate, while the material presented so far for Virginia and South Carolina cannot be so regarded in any sense; H. A. M. Smith, "The Ashley River," *South Carolina Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, January, 1918, and January, 1919, and G. T. Surface, "Geographic Influences on the Economic History of Virginia," *American Geographical Society Bulletin*, vol. XXXIX, 397-409 should be noted.

⁶⁰ W. D. Kelley in *The Old South and the New*, mentions a number of northerners who furnished money and brains to the upbuilding of the South, notably Mr. Disston, of Philadelphia, who went into Florida, Mr. J. T. Jones, of Buffalo, who went into Mississippi, Mr. James Duncan, of less prominence, from Johnstown, Pennsylvania, and Mr. J. S. Perry, of Albany. He also draws attention to 25,000 farmers who invaded Louisiana in 1886.

⁶¹ Clara M. Love, "History of the Cattle Industry in the Southwest," *Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, vol. XIX, 370-399, vol. XX, 1-18, and Emerson Hough, *The Passing of the Frontier*.

⁶² Edith Abbott, "History of the Employment of women in the American Cotton Mills," *Journal of Political Economy*, vol. XVI, 602-21, 680-92, does not touch the South. We have, of course, M. B. Hammond, *The Cotton Industry*, and H. Thompson, *From the Cottonfield to the Cotton Mill*.

⁶³ North Carolina furnishes an illustration in point: in 1888 railroads had entered 51 counties, in 1889, 59.

⁶⁴ The writer has had brought to her attention the possibility of the inter-relation of the rice bogs of Louisiana and the railroads.

⁶⁵ J. A. Morgan has touched upon this subject in "State Aid to Transportation in North Carolina," *North Carolina Booklet*, vol. X, 122-154.

⁶⁶ Louisiana even made considerable appropriations for the Arkansas River in Arkansas as a necessary protection to her own soil.

⁶⁷ It is rather difficult to believe that the building, more like a back country court-house than the capitol of a great commonwealth, still serves Louisiana as a state-house.

⁶⁸ Maryland records laws for the protection of crab, shad and oysters, as well as game and fish, in 1886; Georgia, for the protection of shad and carp, not until 1889; Maryland was already interested in the artificial propagation of the oyster, was ruling against net and seine, and returning small oysters to the sea. A Fish Commission already existed in that state. *Annual Cyclopedia* 1888, 515-516.

⁶⁹ Although the Kansas migration has been treated by W. L. Fleming in "Pap" Singleton, the Moses of the Colored Exodus," *American Journal of Sociology*, vol. XV, 61-82, fresh documentary material has appeared since it was published, *Negro Journal*, January, 1919. The article by R. R. Wright, "Migration of Negroes to the North," *Ann. Amer. Acad. of Pol. Science*, vol. 27, 97-116, treats the matter statistically.

⁷⁰ *Ann. Cyclopedia*, 1870, 132.

⁷¹ Although the story of the Jews in South Carolina and in Georgia has been fairly well worked out, their relation to the recovery of the South has not been noted. The American Jewish historical society may be expected not long to neglect so important a phase of their history.

⁷² Such fêtes have been held in West Virginia within the last decade to the writer's knowledge.

⁷³ H. C. Warmoth, in Louisiana, and Powell Clayton, in Arkansas, are illustrations.

⁷⁴ This subject has been worked out for North Carolina: T. M. Pitman, "History of Crime and Punishment in North Carolina," *North Carolina Literary and Historical Association Proceedings*, vol. XVII, 78-85; for Mississippi by J. H. Jones, "Penitentiary Reform in Mississippi," *Mississippi Historical Society Publications*, vol. VI, 111-128.

²² In Georgia, in 1879, though an amendment to the constitution had forbidden capital punishment, convicts could be leased for the short period of twenty years!

²³ The movement has been treated for Mississippi. See W. H. Patton, "History of the Prohibition Movement in Mississippi," *Mississippi Historical Society Publications*, vol. X, 181-201.

²⁴ Research may reveal that this is too early for organization.

²⁵ I find such a suggestion arising as early as 1876 in North Carolina.

²⁶ This important proposed solution for our race problem has not, I believe, been treated historically.

²⁷ The writer has in mind to determine what effect the negro's well-known dislike for the rice fields had upon the cultivation after he became free to leave the work, whether there is any connection between this fact and the transference of the rice fields into the upland creeks.

²⁸ R. P. Brooks, *The Agrarian Revolution in Georgia*.

²⁹ North Carolina created her department in 1877, Kentucky in 1889, Maryland in 1889, and Virginia in 1890.

³⁰ The opening of these institutions extended from 1872 to 1881. The first college in South Carolina was located at Clemson, the home of J. C. Calhoun.

³¹ This was the federal act which made an enormous gift of public land for purposes of education.

³² There seems to be little information available for this subject, but it is worthy of careful search.

³³ C. A. Phillips, *A History of Education in Missouri*; S. B. Weeks, *History of Public School Education in Alabama*; S. B. Weeks, *History of Public School Education in Arizona*; J. Daniels, "The Progress of Southern Education," *Annals Amer. Acad. of Pol. Science*, XXII, 66-75.

³⁴ It will be recalled that it met opposition even from southerners in 1890.

³⁵ The article by Anne Wallace, "The Library Movement in the South Since 1899," in *Library Journal*, vol. XXXII, 253-258, would imply a dearth of libraries before that date.

³⁶ C. L. Coon, "The Beginnings of the North Carolina City Schools, 1867-1887," *South Atlantic Quarterly*, XII, 235-247. E. W. Knight, "The Influence of Reconstruction on Education in the South," No. 60 in *Contributors to Education*, Teachers College, Columbia University; and W. K. Boyd, "Some Phases of Educational History in the South Since 1865," in *Studies in Southern History and Politics*, and E. W. Knight, "The Peabody Funds and Its Early Operation in North Carolina," *South Atlantic Quarterly*, XIV, 168-180, all shed light on this subject.

³⁷ The work of W. F. Dodd, *The Revision and Amendment of State Constitutions*, does not cover the task here suggested.

³⁸ We have the monograph of Farrar Newberry, *A. H. Garland*; of C. Dowd, *Z. B. Vance*; of U. B. Phillips, on Toombs.

³⁹ Watterson's autobiography, *Marse Henru*, is, of course, no substitute for the impersonal, scientific biographical study.

⁴⁰ Rev. W. C. Whitaker, *History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Alabama*; A. H. Noll, *History of the Church in the Diocese of Tennessee*.

⁴¹ This study would naturally follow the work of W. L. Fleming, "The Churches of Alabama During the Civil War and Reconstruction," *The Gulf States Historical Magazine*, vol. I, 105-127.

⁴² In some parts of the South even as late as 1890 it was a disgrace to belong to the "Nigger Church." This statement is made on the authority of a Congregationalist in Baltimore.

⁴³ Individual states have been studied. See J. B. Earnest, "The Religious Development of the Negro in the South," R. C. Reed, "A Sketch of the Religious History of the Negro in the South," *American Society of Church Historical Papers*, series 2, vol. IV, 177-204.

⁴⁴ B. H. Carroll, "Standard History of Houston," L. P. Elliott, *Early History of Nashville*; G. A. Finkelnburg,

Under Three Flags (St. Louis); P. J. Hamilton, *Mobile of the Five Flags*; J. P. Young, *Standard History of Memphis*, etc.

⁴⁵ This subject is prompted by the knowledge that the revolt in Baltimore of 1890 arose from just such corruption.

⁴⁶ The list of county histories is far too long to be cited here, especially when few are of merit.

⁴⁷ Those on the Mississippi counties are particularly noteworthy.

⁴⁸ The writer has met an elderly man who tells how in his childhood he searched in vain in the dictionary for the word *damyankee*, as he had never heard the noun unaccompanied by the adjective. The stories also of Southern teachers who have torn from Northern pupils' textbooks the chapters on the Civil War scarcely need repetition.

⁴⁹ The writer has in mind lesser bills than the Refunding bill of 1888 and Lodge's Force bill of 1890, which would naturally bring out feeling.

⁵⁰ D. H. Miles, "The Healing of a National Breach," *Independent*, vol. 71, 1262-4, does not cover this subject.

⁵¹ The writer recognizes, naturally, that some of the above suggestions may have already received treatment, although a sincere attempt has been made to determine whether or not an adequate treatment of each suggestion has appeared in print.

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Possibilities for Historical Research in New Orleans

BY JULIE KOCH, SOCIAL SCIENCE DEPT., CLEVELAND HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Is there any state in the Union save the thirteen colonies that is as rich in historical memories or European lore as Louisiana, and yet is there any locality that the historian has heeded less? Its rivers and its towns bear records by their names that this was once the Indian's home, while the scattered relics housed in the Cabildo in New Orleans as well as the mounds to be found throughout the Natchitoches region point to a civilization that may be a connecting link in tracing the history of this race. But no archaeologist has come to the rescue of the Indian of the Gulf region to do what was attempted last winter in behalf of the Indians who erected the Cahokia mounds in Illinois.

The story of the Louisiana Purchase is a glib lot of phrases, but the social, economic, and industrial life of the Spanish period, the years just preceding the events of 1803, and the urgent need for the control of the outlet to the gulf has scarcely been touched with accurate detail or with any attempt at interpretation. Even Mrs. Surrey, who has covered the field more intensively than any student in recent years, fails to add that magic touch that will make the river pulsate with the life and color of a French culture. The student of the history of the Middle Ages knows that he who has not thumbed "Levant Handel Im Mittel Alter" has missed a part of his heritage, but no Heyd has come to shape a word picture of the fondaccio of the new world, for such New Orleans was in the days of D'Aubert. Gayarré has written a charming history, but like Baron Münchhausen, he forgot his foot-notes. Is it an exaggeration to say that just as one turns to the Bible as a gold mine for examples of every phase of writing from proverbs to drama, so the historian can find in Gayarré sufficient inspiration for many years of toil? Who can ever forget the story of the Turk upon whose grave grew the date tree, or the romantic career of the Lady Charlotte who, escaping from the Russian court where she was betrothed to the son of Peter the Great, was harbored in Louisiana, where she found her faithful lover as a hermit in the jungle of the Bayou St. John? This fiction mars Gayarré, but turn the pages and the account of the French colonial economy gives food for thought. Miss Grace King has also essayed to describe Creole life indirectly in "New Orleans, the Place and the People," but Miss King is a novelist. So is George Cable except in his short study of the negro question.

For suggestions of the extensive trade of 1820-1860, one must turn to the autobiographies of the time, of such men as the Reverend Clapp, an interesting divine who first came to the Mississippi in 1822. "In Liverpool, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Belfast, Dublin, even Paris, and Genoa, in Switzerland, I was made to feel as if I were at home, by those who recognized me at once, but had never seen me except in the pulpit, or at a funeral. Merchants, and the

agents of large mercantile houses from various parts of Europe flock to New Orleans every winter."

The Reconstruction period has been handled more fully by such people as Dr. Phillips, who for a short time served Tulane as professor of history. Then there are the few outstanding volumes by Dr. Fickeln who for years was head of the department of history at Tulane University and by his spirit of research inspired all who came in contact with him. The work of Professor H. Deiler remains as an interesting bit of research for those who are concerned with the European nationalities locating in Louisiana, but he was a linguist, not an historian. His hobby, which was to prove that many of the so-called French families were not really Creoles, but were Germans who on coming to Louisiana translated their names into the French tongue for convenience, led to the collection of an extensive number of valuable manuscripts. These were willed to the Tulane University, and there they have remained in the attic of the library, and have scarcely been used.

At present, a most important historical undertaking is being attempted in New Orleans, and yet, I dare say there are few students of history who have heard of the project. One hundred and eight boxes of historical manuscripts are being brought to the light of day, many of them being papers that have been assembled from various parts of the city, many documents that were stolen during the Civil War period, which have been returned. Each box is the size of a large condensed-milk carton, and the plan is to restore the manuscripts through scientific paleographical methods so that they may be translated and edited in much the same fashion as has been done for the Marquette and Joliet papers. The original will be on one side of the page, the translation on the other. The Louisiana Historical Society is responsible for this gigantic task, and hopes to permit students to begin work in five years. Many of the manuscripts are of the latter part of the eighteenth century, and for the study of French law, and French customs, are of no slight importance, as, for example, where in a law suit the details of the dowry of the lady under question are noted. The Spanish manuscripts are written in different styles of handwriting according to the nature of the contents, a custom prevalent among the scribes of the Iberian peninsula. The writer does not wish to steal the fire of those who have been waiting patiently until the doors of the Cabildo have been opened and access to this Pandora's box granted, and hence refrains from further comment.

The history of the Roman Catholic Church in Louisiana is yet to be written with more than the sweep of the pen of an H. G. Wells; the influence of the westward movement on the Roman Church; the theology and applied Christianity of Sylvester Larned; the money of colonial France, as interesting

a story as Germany's financial plight today—these studies and many others await the historian in New Orleans.

You may have a seat in the old Cabildo, where was signed the treaty of 1803; with the river boats puffing in the distance, with the spires of the old St. Louis Cathedral and the flags of foreign ships gleaming against the sky, and the gardens of Jackson Square below you, a blurred mass of tropical flowers, you will be left to unravel the secrets of the past. Who could ask more for inspiration?

There is one prerequisite. He who comes to New Orleans must have more than a passing acquaintance with French and Spanish, something more than the equipment of the average student at the university who hopes to achieve his doctorate. Because of too meagre a linguistic training, many students come to New Orleans and fail in their quest. But the material is there for him who has the wisdom and the inspiration to do for France's colony in America what Frederick Turner has done for the West.

Preparation for the Teaching of History in High Schools

BY PROFESSOR WALTER PRICHARD, LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

The purpose of this paper is to point out, in order to combat, and, if possible, to do something to correct, the all too prevalent and pernicious notion now apparently held and unfortunately acted upon by many school administrators in Louisiana—namely, that any member of the high school teaching staff is able to handle the classes in History. Too long has it been the custom and practice, in all except the largest and best high schools of the State, to parcel out the classes in History among those members of the teaching staff who do not have enough classes in their special subjects to constitute a full program. So far as I know, it has never been contended by competent men in the fields of school administration and supervision that teachers are born with a thorough knowledge of, and with the ability to teach, Mathematics, Science, English, Foreign Languages, or even Home Economics, Manual Training, Music, Agriculture, or Athletics. But it does seem quite frequently to be taken for granted by these same school officials that teachers are born with a thorough knowledge of, and with the ability to teach, History. At any rate, most of the History work in the smaller high schools of Louisiana is being handled—I cannot say taught—by teachers without any regular training in either History or the special methods employed in teaching the subject.

There are at present in this State—and the same statement may be applied to a majority of the other States—dozens and dozens of teachers giving instruction in high school History, which is harmful rather than helpful to the pupils under their charge. Such unfortunate pupils are the victims of the present vicious methods of selecting teachers of History. Moreover, the majority of the victims of this inefficient system are wholly unconscious of the inadequacy of the instruction which they are receiving; and many of them leave the high school with the erroneous notion that they have mastered the fields of European and American History. Consequently, some of these victims, considering themselves masters of the subject, because the incompetent instructors under whose supervision they have studied have given them uniformly high marks in all their History work, undertake in their turn to teach the subject to a new crop

of unfortunate victims. Thus the vicious circle goes on and on; and in the meantime there is no advance in the general standard of the History teaching in the high schools of the State—unless a few of the bigger and better high schools may be excluded from this sweeping charge.

If it were possible for all the graduates from the high schools of the State to continue the study of History in higher institutions of learning, some of the erroneous impressions gathered from the work of incompetent instructors in the high schools might be corrected. But the sad thing about the whole situation is that only a relatively small percentage of the graduates of the high schools have either the opportunity or the desire to pursue a course in liberal arts in an institution of higher learning. And of those high school graduates, who do pursue such a course, many find themselves seriously handicapped in their college work in History because of the inadequacy of their high school training in the subject. Moreover, those college students who take up such professional or vocational courses as Engineering and Agriculture are not required to study History as a part of their prescribed work. Consequently, the only training such college graduates have ever received in History is that obtained in the high school course. Hence, if any large number of the future leaders in the affairs of this State are to begin the duties of real citizenship with an adequate knowledge of the History of the world and the progress of civilization from the dim and distant past to the living present, this training must be acquired in the high schools.

The safest guarantee of high-class instruction in high school History is thoroughly trained and competent teachers of the subject. Therefore, it is highly desirable that we begin now to demand and secure thoroughly trained and competent teachers of History for all the high schools in the State. But, what constitutes thorough training in History? And, what are the essential qualifications of a competent teacher of high school History? What training, general and special, is necessary to equip a person for administering the instruction in high school History in an efficient manner? My one answer to all these questions is that the teacher of high school History should have

all the general training required of teachers of other high school subjects, plus special training in the fields of History and allied subjects and in the special methods used in teaching History, which apply to that subject alone.

I shall first take up the matter of the general training which all high school teachers should have, and then proceed to the consideration of the special training necessary to fit one to be a competent and successful teacher of History in a high school. In the beginning, let me lay down the general principle that no teacher should be employed to teach any subject in any high school in any State in the Union until such teacher shall have completed a four-year standard college course, in which emphasis has been placed upon a particular subject which the student desires to teach, and which has included courses in the fundamentals of teaching.

Under the head of general training for teachers of History, in common with all other high school teachers, I should require standard college courses in Psychology, with emphasis upon the special field of the Psychology of Adolescence; and in the Principles of Education, with emphasis upon the special field of Secondary Education. But some may ask: Why require a prospective teacher of History to study Psychology and Education? Of what value to a History teacher is a knowledge of those subjects? My answer is that teachers of all high school subjects are called upon primarily to teach boys and girls during the age of adolescence, and without a thorough knowledge of the peculiarities of the adolescent mind a teacher well equipped in the subject to be taught will not be able to secure the best results; and the instruction cannot be most effective unless the teacher is familiar with the larger principles involved in the acquisition of knowledge by the pupil. The teaching process cannot be mastered without an understanding of the learning process. Hence standard college courses in the subjects of Psychology and the Principles of Education are fundamental and indispensable as a part of the general training of teachers of History, as well as of teachers of any other of the high school subjects.

I now come to the special training in the fields of History and allied subjects which should be required of every applicant for a position to teach History in any high school in the State. First of all, the prospective teacher of high school History should spend at least three years of daily recitations (five or six hours per week) pursuing courses in the various fields of History in some standard college or university. This work should include courses, elementary and advanced, in the fields of Ancient, Medieval and Modern European, and American History, together with elementary training in Historical Method and Criticism, Historiography, and the Elements of Historical Research. These latter courses, which deal with the method rather than the subject matter in History should be taken preferably toward the end of the college course, after the student has acquired a reasonably thorough knowledge of the subject mat-

ter of History, although a little of this work may be taught as a part of the content courses. These rigid requirements and this extensive preparation in History for prospective teachers of the subject will preclude persons, who have had merely a survey course or two in college History, and who feel qualified to handle the subject because they do not realize their limitations and shortcomings, from securing positions teaching History in high schools. But some may ask: Why all this prolonged and elaborate preparation in History for the prospective teacher of the subject? What is the utility of all this extensive and intensive training? My contention is that in no other way is it possible for the college student of History to get a thorough knowledge of the subject, and at the same time to acquire that correct view of the broader aspects of the field and to develop that quality of historical mindedness, which is such a valuable asset in teaching the subject, and without which it is impossible to give correct interpretations of the various phases of History dealt with in the high school courses.

But the mere study of History for three years of daily recitations is not alone sufficient to qualify a person for teaching this subject efficiently in a first-class high school. There are certain collateral subjects, closely allied to History, which are of great value in mastering that subject, and which are indispensable in the proper training of students and prospective teachers of History. Hence, I should prescribe a minimum of one year of daily recitations in each of the following subjects for those who are preparing to teach History in high schools: Political Science or Government, Economics, and Sociology.

Of what value to a teacher of History is a knowledge of Political Science or Government? In the first place, most of the teachers of History, especially in the smaller high schools, are called upon to teach one or more courses in Civics; and for this work a thorough knowledge of the structure and functions of our government—local, state, and national—is indispensable. Furthermore, the History of any country cannot be mastered without a knowledge of the structure, functions, and the process of development of its government. Allow me to cite as examples in point the city-state in Ancient Greece, Rome under the Republic and the Empire, the Holy Roman Empire during the Middle Ages, the partitions of Poland, the transition from absolute monarchy to republic in France, England and the British Empire, modern Russia, Japan, and China, and the German Empire before the Great War—to say nothing of our own country's History and that of the Hispanic-American countries to the south of us. Can you completely separate the History of any country from the government of that country at any particular time under consideration? I maintain that you cannot do so. Hence, a thorough study of History necessitates a study of Government, and vice versa.

Moreover, certain facts and disputed issues met with in the realm of History cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of some of the fundamental principles of International Law, as it was interpreted in the countries in question at the time of the events

involved in the dispute. To cite a single example: How can you understand the disputes between the United States and England over impressments, contraband, and the rights of neutrals, leading up to the War of 1812, unless you know how each of the countries interpreted the points of International Law involved? And, how can you teach to high school pupils points which are not clear to you?

Without a knowledge of the different and conflicting political theories and principles held at a given time in a given country, it is impossible to comprehend fully, and to explain clearly to pupils under your charge, the fundamental differences between sections, factions, or political parties upon points at issue. You cannot, without such knowledge, understand the issues between the North and South between 1830 and 1860; the struggle between King and Parliament in England in the seventeenth century; or the different views of Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson in regard to the interpretation of our Federal Constitution during the early years of our national existence.

Since the subject of Political Science and Government is so intimately related to the work in History, it is absolutely necessary that prospective teachers of high school History be trained in the fundamentals of the former subject. Some of the elementary facts of politics and government are now, and must continue to be, taught in connection with courses in History; but some of the more specialized courses are always taught separately. Hence, if the prospective teacher of high school History is to receive adequate training in Political Science and Government, separate courses in this important subject must be prescribed.

But why require the prospective teacher of high school History to study Economics? The reason for this requirement is that many of the facts and problems of History are so intimately related to the principles of Economics that it is impossible to understand many important historical events without a thorough knowledge of the field of Economics. Let me illustrate my point by citing a few examples from American History. How can you explain the effects of the British Navigation Acts upon the American Colonies, the defects of the Continental Currency, Hamilton's financial policies, the importance of the First and Second United States Banks, Internal Improvements, the causes and results of the financial and business crises in the United States, the economic foundations of the slavery issue, the Greenback, free silver, and cheap money movements, the tariff issue, the benefits of the adoption of the gold standard, the labor movement, the workings of our Federal Reserve Banking System, etc., without a thorough knowledge of the fundamental principles of Economics? Courses in Public Finance and Taxation, Money and Banking, Corporation Finance, Business Organization and Management, Labor and Capital, the Immigration Problem, the Tariff, etc., in addition to a general course in the principles of Economics, are very helpful to the prospective teacher of high school History. Can you explain satisfactorily all the movements in any field of History without the application of economic principles? I challenge you to do so to the

entire satisfaction of any thorough student of History. Little of this work in Economics can be effectively taught as a part of the regular History courses. Hence the importance of the requirement of special courses in Economics as a part of the training of prospective teachers of high school History.

I now come to the required work in Sociology. Why should one who is preparing to teach History be required to take any work in Sociology? Social facts and problems are constantly encountered in the study of History, and they cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of the structure and functions of society, and of social origins and the process of development of our social institutions from the earliest times to the present. Social conditions in any given country at any given time so profoundly affect the political, constitutional, and economic life of the people that they cannot be neglected in a thorough study of any historic event. Can you understand the History of ancient Athens or Sparta, of Rome at the time of the Gracchi, of the Peasant Revolts in England and France during the Hundred Years War, of the Renaissance and Reformation in Europe, of France under the Old Regime, of Ireland during the last century, or of Russia since the War with Japan—to cite only a few examples—without a knowledge of the contemporaneous social conditions in those regions? How can you understand the relations of capital and labor, the immigration problem, the care of the poor and unfortunate classes, the question of child-labor, and the various phases of the modern social legislation in our own country without some knowledge of the principles of Sociology? The answer must be in the negative. Hence the requirement of a certain amount of training in Sociology as a part of the preparation of the prospective teacher of high school History.

This training in History, Political Science or Government, Economics, and Sociology is what I regard as the minimum fundamental requirement in the preparation of a teacher of high school History, so far as the content courses are concerned. These courses will constitute approximately one-half of the program of study in the standard four-year college course. But I contend that this is not too much to expect, if the standard of instruction in high school History is to be raised to the proper level.

There are some other subjects, such as Geography and Philosophy, which are of great value to the teacher and student of History, but which I did not include in the allied subjects. The former is absolutely fundamental, and the latter very helpful, in teaching the subject of History. But an elementary knowledge of both may be included as a part of the requirements in History and the closely allied subjects. History cannot be properly taught without constant emphasis upon the matter of Geography; and a certain amount of Philosophy must be embodied in any thorough course in Political Science, Economics, or Sociology. Historical information, which is not firmly anchored in space, is more or less useless; and any political, economic, or social facts which do not rest upon a firm foundation of Philosophy are erected upon an unstable base.

I now come to the matter of special training in the technique of high school teaching. The above proposed course of study in the fields of History and allied subjects should make the prospective teacher reasonably proficient in the subject matter of the high school History work. But it is a fact that some brilliant students of History are utter failures when they attempt to teach the subject. This is because they have either neglected to make the effort, or have failed in their endeavor, to master the technique of History teaching. The chances of success can be greatly increased, and the probabilities of failure appreciably diminished, if every prospective teacher of high school History is required to take a course in the technique of History teaching. Such a course should include: first, the organization of the subject matter for purposes of instruction; second, the special methods employed in teaching History to high school pupils—such as the socialized recitation, the project-problem method, etc.; and third, the proper use of textbooks, maps, charts, collateral readings, etc., so as to secure the best results. This work should be prescribed; and it may well be counted as a part of the required work in History, and not as an additional required course.

Some may ask: Will you guarantee a student who has pursued, in a creditable manner, the prescribed courses in Psychology and the principles of Education, in History and the allied subjects and in the technique of History teaching to be a successful teacher of high school History? I must answer you in the negative, since no amount of theoretical training is an absolute guarantee of success in practical work. The real test of one's ability to teach is successful teaching. And the best and quickest way to test the teaching ability of a prospective teacher of high school History is to require a certain amount of practice teaching of the subject under adequate supervision. Under such conditions as much progress in mastering the art of teaching high school History may be made in a single month as could be made by the same individual working alone in the course of an entire year, or even in several years of unaided experience. The practice teaching courses are the educational laboratories in which prospective teachers are tested, and their defects detected and remedied, before turning them out as finished products with the trade mark of the institution stamped upon them. Such a course in practice teaching in high school History should shorten materially the period of apprenticeship and turn out the prospective teacher as nearly a master workman in his field as it is possible to make out of the individual under training.

Finally, what important results may reasonably be expected to follow from the adoption and enforcement of this relatively high standard of qualifications, which I am advocating for all teachers of History in the high schools of the State? One result of such a move will be that the future graduates of the high schools, who enter the teaching profession, will begin their work of teaching History in the grades with a broader and saner view of, and with a far more adequate preparation in, the subject than is at present carried away from the high school by the average

graduate. This improvement in the quality of the instruction in History in the grades will in turn put into the high school classes of the future pupils with far better preparation for the History work offered in the high schools, and will also greatly benefit those unfortunate boys and girls whose school careers must end with the completion of the work in the grades. Consequently, both these classes of our boys and girls will be better equipped to enter upon the duties of real citizenship than they can possibly be under the present conditions of unsatisfactory instruction in History in many of the schools of the State. Another most desirable result will be a set of better prepared high school graduates to pass on the institutions of higher learning, wherein the future high school teachers of the State must secure their training; and this will enable those institutions to send back into the high schools, as teachers, some of these same students who have had the benefit of better training in History throughout their entire school careers, thus putting into the high schools of the future far better qualified and more competent teachers of History, on the average, than are to be found there at present. Thus this beneficent circle will go on and on until the standard of instruction in History in the high schools of Louisiana becomes as high as, if not higher than, that in the high schools of any other State in the Union.

Louisiana got a rather late start in many lines of public educational policy, but her wonderfully rapid progress in these lines has enabled her largely to overcome the handicap of a late start. Likewise, in this important measure which I am advocating, Louisiana is somewhat tardy in making the start. But she can make up for this tardiness by making the start at once, and by devoting to the solution of the problem such earnest and untiring effort as she has shown herself capable of exerting in the solution of the many other problems of public education with which she has been confronted within recent years. One thing is certain; we cannot reach the desired goal in this highly important matter, unless we first make the start. Delay in making the start is exceedingly dangerous to the educational welfare of the sons and daughters, who are to be the future citizens and leaders of the State of Louisiana. The proposed task is not an impossible one; such reforms have been carried out in other States. And, with the active and hearty support of the membership of the Social Science Section of the Louisiana Teachers' Association, with the co-operation of the State Department of Education, and with the backing of all other school officials and citizens, who are interested in raising the educational standards of the State, it will be possible, within a relatively short time to make the transition from the present unsatisfactory situation, with inferior instruction in History in many of the high schools of the State, to a condition far better when there shall be superior instruction in History in all the high schools of the State, under the direction of thoroughly trained and competent teachers of the subject. The results to be obtained in this highly important matter are worth far more than the effort necessary to effect their accomplishment.

The Study of State History in the High Schools of Missouri¹

BY PROFESSOR E. M. VIOLETTE, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

State history has been taught in the elementary schools of most of the states of the Union for a good many years. Ordinarily it has been pursued in the seventh or eighth grades, ostensibly in connection with United States history or civics and with some textbook as a guide. Frequently this text has been the only source of information on the subject accessible to the pupils. In some states state history has been studied in the lower grades in story form as well as in the seventh or eighth grades. Because of the attention that has been given to state history in the elementary grades, it has long been thought of primarily as an elementary school subject.

Thanks, however, to the great increase in popular interest in state history in the last decade or more, the subject has begun to be deemed worthy of study in the high schools also, and in several states the subject is now being pursued in those schools more or less definitely. From replies to inquiries made of the state superintendents of the states in the Mississippi Valley, I have found that at least nine states (Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri, North Dakota, Texas and Wisconsin) are doing something to promote the study of state history in the high schools. Of these nine states, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri and Texas seem to be pursuing the subject somewhat more definitely than the others. Sufficient data are not at hand to make any detailed comparison as to what is being done in these four states, but I have reason to believe that more is being accomplished in Missouri than in any of the other three. I therefore propose to set forth here briefly the manner in which state history is being pursued in the Missouri high schools at the present time and to indicate what appears to be its future prospects.

Efforts to introduce state history into the high schools of Missouri began about ten years ago. They were inspired largely by a movement that was inaugurated by the Mississippi Valley Historical Association to encourage the study of state history in the high schools in connection with the junior or senior course in American history. The position taken by the Association, or at least by the committee that was appointed to push the matter, was that state history could be best understood and appreciated, not as a separate subject, but in connection with American history. The committee undertook to arrange for the drafting and publication of a syllabus of the history of each state in the Mississippi Valley that should be so constructed as to make it possible for high school teachers of history to intertwine American history and state history in the same course. I do not know to what extent the committee succeeded in this effort. I happen to know, however, that syllabi were drawn up for the states of Ohio, Kansas and

Missouri by certain individuals in those states who had been designated by the committee to do so.

The guiding principle that was followed in drawing up the syllabi for these three states was to include only those topics in state history that were connected more or less directly with our national history, and the expectation was that these topics would be taken up for consideration from time to time as the subjects with which they were connected in our national history were reached in the course in American history.

This method of procedure played havoc with many of the traditional topics in Missouri history. Much of what was purely local in character was discarded or treated very lightly. The history of Missouri was no longer to be traced by governors' administrations as had been the custom in the elementary schools. Indeed, most of the governors were to go unnoticed, a most cruel process to be sure, but unavoidable for the reason that very few of them had ever been officially connected with matters that were of national importance.

This plan of dealing with the history of Missouri was taken up for discussion in the history section of the Missouri State Teachers Association, and some articles on the matter appeared from time to time in the Missouri School Journal. Meanwhile some attempts were made to try out the Missouri syllabus in high school classes in American history, and it was found that the scheme would work.

It became evident very soon, however, that it would be impossible to get very far with the method suggested by the syllabus without a textbook specially constructed along the lines laid down in the syllabus. At that time there were on the market two texts on Missouri history, but they were ill-suited for the purpose, having been written for the elementary school and having built along the old standard and traditional lines of state history. This need of a specially arranged textbook in Missouri history which could be used in connection with the high school textbook in American history, was filled in 1918, and with the appearance of this book the first practical obstacle to the study of Missouri history in the high school was removed. Shortly after the publication of this book a number of high schools began to make use of it, and in this way Missouri history found entrance into the high schools of Missouri.

The rapid progress that the study of Missouri history has made in the high schools of Missouri since its introduction has been due more perhaps to the official encouragement and approval that has been given to it by the state superintendent of schools than to any other one thing. In 1919 that official recommended in the state course of study for the Missouri high schools that Missouri history should be studied in high schools in connection with the third or fourth year American history after the manner of the syllabus.

¹Read before the Mississippi Valley Historical Association at Iowa City, Iowa, May 12, 1922.

abus above described. He did not mention the syllabus specifically but his recommendation was along the line of the principle that was followed in the syllabus. Two years later he gave further encouragement to the study of the subject by suggesting a one semester course in Missouri history in the freshman year of high school along with another one semester course in community civics as an alternative to the plan he had recommended in 1919. These two half year courses in Missouri history and community civics were to take the place of the old course in ancient or early European history. How far the recommendations of the state superintendent have been followed, we shall now see.

As yet no complete survey has been made of the work that has been done in Missouri history in the high schools of the state. But from the partial investigations that I have been able to carry on in preparation for this paper, I feel that the results have been most encouraging. There are a little over 600 high schools in Missouri; over 300 of them are first class, about 100 are second class, and nearly 200 are third class. It was not possible for me to make an exhaustive examination of all these 600 high schools. So I selected out of the 300 or more first class high schools, 250 that appeared to be the strongest, and I sent to each one a questionnaire asking for certain definite data on the study of Missouri history. To my great gratification 190 out of the 250 questionnaires came back more or less well filled out. From these returns I think I have been able to get a fairly accurate line upon the situation as regards the study of Missouri history in the first class Missouri high schools.

Of the 190 high schools that returned the questionnaires, 108 reported that they are giving some attention to Missouri history and 82 reported that they are not. Expressed in percentages, 56 per cent of the schools represented in the returns are studying Missouri history and 44 per cent are not.

The fundamental question in the questionnaire was as to whether Missouri history is being studied as a separate course or in connection with some other course in history or civics. The principal object of this question was to discover whether or not Missouri history is being incorporated into the course in American history according to the plan of the syllabus that had been prepared under the auspices of this Association and that had been recommended in principle by the state superintendent to the high schools of the state in 1919. Seventy-seven schools reported that they are studying the subject in connection with some other course, and only 31 reported that they are studying it as a separate course. At first glance it would appear that the plan of the syllabus is being followed out very widely. But I have reason to doubt that. Of the 77 schools in this group, 38 reported that they are studying Missouri history in connection with American history, 17 with American history and civics, and 23 with civics. Those reporting that they are pursuing Missouri history in connection with civics could not be considered as following the plan of the syllabus. Eliminating them from our calcula-

tion, we have only 55 that could possibly be following the syllabus, that is about 50 per cent of the schools reporting that they are studying Missouri history. But judging from the comments made in the syllabus under the head of remarks and from the textbooks that were reported as being used in some of the schools that say they are studying Missouri history in connection with American history, I am convinced that not more than 20 of them are actually making a combination of American and Missouri history as suggested by the syllabus. Many of these schools reporting to be studying Missouri history in connection with some other course remarked in the questionnaire that they were spending a few days or weeks at the beginning of each term to the study of Missouri history. Evidently they were merely "tacking on" Missouri history and not incorporating it into the course of American history.

Of the 31 schools reporting that they are studying Missouri history in a separate course, 20 state that they are giving it in the freshman year, 2 in the sophomore year and 6 in the junior or senior year. All those giving it in the freshman year are devoting one half of the year to Missouri history and the other half to community civics or the old fashioned civics in accordance with the recommendations of the state superintendent in 1921.

The drift seems to be very strongly in the direction of making the course in Missouri history a separate course. Of the 77 schools that reported that they are teaching Missouri history in connection with American history or civics, 14 say that they will give it next year as a separate course. More significant are the expressions that come from the high schools that are not giving any attention at present to Missouri history but are planning to introduce it next year. Of the 82 schools that are not teaching Missouri history now, 34, or nearly 50 per cent, say that they will give it next year, and of these 34, 29 say that they will give it as a separate course, and only 5 say that they will give it in connection with American history or civics. I strongly suspect that most of these 5 will not treat Missouri history as an integral part of another course, but will merely bring it in at the opening or the close of the other course, thus making Missouri history virtually a separate course.

The chief reason for this drift towards making the Missouri history as a separate course is that when the subject is thus dealt with it stands out much more distinctly in the curriculum than when taught in connection with another course. When Missouri history is presented as a part of the course in American history, the subject loses its identity and individuality, it is claimed. As one superintendent said to me: "When we teach Missouri history, we want that fact known and we want to get the credit for doing it. We can't get that credit if we teach Missouri history in connection with American history." Furthermore, it is claimed that greater interest in the subject can be aroused and better enthusiasm can be sustained when it is presented as a separate course.

The drift seems to be not only towards a sepa-

rate course in Missouri history, but also towards giving this separate course in the freshman year. Of the 14 high schools that are now giving Missouri history in connection with American history and that are contemplating presenting it as a separate course next year, 8 will give it in the freshman year; and of the 29 that are not giving Missouri history now but will give it next year as a separate course, 21 will give it in the freshman year.

A separate course in Missouri history whether given in the freshman year or later will not likely be restricted to those topics that are more or less directly connected with our national history. Such a course will undoubtedly tend to put emphasis more and more upon local matters unless those who write the textbooks and those who teach the subject become thoroughly inoculated with the idea that the things of greatest importance in state history are those that find their historical setting in our national history.

I suspect that if I could have extended my investigations to the second and third class high schools in the state, of which there are about 300, I would have found that many of them are now teaching Missouri history in some form or other. I personally know of a dozen or more second and third class high schools that have been teaching Missouri history during the year that is now closing and that intend to make it a permanent subject in their course of study.

From the facts that have been produced it would seem that the time is not far distant when Missouri history will be a part of the curricula of practically all the high schools of Missouri. Judging from what has been done in the last four years and from the momentum that the movement has gained by now, one would be fairly safe in saying that the prediction just made would be fulfilled before the passing of another four year period.

In conclusion let me mention briefly what is being done in the universities and colleges of the state in the

way of promoting the study of Missouri history. The University of Missouri has for over twenty years been giving courses in Missouri history, including a seminar for graduate students. The collection of the State Historical Society of Missouri that is housed in the library building of the university, has long furnished ample material for graduate study, and the history faculty have been diligent in their use of this material. Washington University has only recently availed herself of the splendid collection of the Missouri Historical Society, situated within a stone's throw of the campus, but it will undoubtedly make up for lost time from now on. Within the last ten years the teachers colleges of the state have entered the field of undergraduate study in Missouri history, and at present three of them are giving courses in Missouri history that are both strong and popular. It is only a matter of time when the other two teachers colleges will be paralleling the work of those already engaged in the work. Besides the teachers colleges, at least two of the standard colleges of the state are giving courses in Missouri history.

The interest of the higher institutions of learning in Missouri augurs well for the future of the subject in the high schools of the state. In the first place it insures well prepared teachers of Missouri history, without which the subject would be a failure in the schools. In the second place, it is aiding very materially in the production of articles, monographs and books on Missouri history suitable for reference work in the schools and also for the general public.

What Missouri has accomplished in the study of her own history in the high schools can be duplicated by many other states. If what I have presented contributes in any way to an increased interest in state history in any other commonwealth, I shall feel fully repaid for whatever effort I have put forth in the preparation of this paper.

The Technique of the Historical Outline

BY HAZEL M. WOODRUFF, INSTRUCTOR IN HISTORY, SAN DIEGO HIGH SCHOOL.

In reading THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK and other magazines I have often come across profitable and interesting outlines, but of so many different forms that I have often wondered that the human mind could conceive so many ways to accomplish the same result. The form which I am submitting here is that adopted by the History and English Departments of the San Diego High School. We have found it easily understood by the students, easily corrected by the teacher and practical in use.

There seem to be three general types of outlines, the question outline, the topical outline, and the brief. The brief is of most value in argumentation, such as law and debate. The History Department of San Diego High School therefore leaves to the English Department the entire teaching of the brief, and shares with the English Department the teaching of the other two forms of outlines. Inasmuch as there are many forms more or less standard, it seemed advisable to us to agree upon one which we would

use in both departments and so not confuse the students with two or more forms at one time. I am presenting the form agreed upon in the hope that it may be of use to other history teachers.

ENDORSEMENT: For the convenience of the teacher in sorting papers and for the safeguarding of the student's work in the case of possible loss, every paper should be endorsed. The endorsement should be placed in the upper right-hand corner, and should consist of name (last name first), class, period, and date, thus:

Jones, Mary,
4A History, Period VI,
September 20, 1922.

TITLE: The title should be on the first line of the paper. The usual rules of capitalization should be followed: Viz., the beginning word, the important words such as nouns, adjectives and verbs, should be capitalized; articles, prepositions, and conjunctions should not be capitalized. In case the paper is typewritten, every letter should be capitalized. The first line after the title should be skipped.

NOTATION: There are many forms of notation used. Some, particularly those with sub-numerals or exponents, have the merit of indefinite expansion. The fault of this type of outline is that it is difficult to follow and both students and teachers lose themselves in the maze of numbers. This is worse when the paper is written by hand and without due regard to the width of margins for each sub-topic. The notation which we have adopted consists of an alternation of numbers and letters, thus:

I.

A.

1.

a.

(1).

(a).

[1].

[a].

The width of margin for each sub-topic should vary somewhat according to the style of handwriting used, but in general three-quarters of an inch or an inch will make about the right spacing. In case the outline is typewritten, eight to ten spaces should be the additional margin used for each sub-topic.

The second line of the sub-topics should be carried only so far to the left as the beginning of the sub-topic of which it is a part. Students often desire to carry the second line of sub-topics to the left margin of the entire outline, but this results in confusion and prevents the main topics from standing out boldly and clearly to the eye.

CAPITALIZATION WITHIN THE OUTLINE: Topics with the notation of Roman numerals and of capital letters should be capitalized as in titles; other topics should begin with a capital letter but should not use other capitals unless the word itself requires it.

FORM OF THE QUESTION OUTLINE: The question outline is of special value to the student in the study of his lesson. It seeks, by arousing his curiosity, to impel him to further study. The following is a very brief sample of a question outline:

NAPOLEON.

- I. Who was he?
 - A. When did he live?
 - B. Where did he live?
- II. What did he do?
- III. Why did he do it?
- IV. What were the results?

This form of outline undoubtedly has its merits, but I must admit that I have found little use for it. I know teachers, however, who use it with great success. I usually refer to this type of outline as "the who, where, what, when, and why outline."

FORM OF THE TOPICAL OUTLINE: The topical outline may be an outline of an assigned lesson in a book or it may be an analysis and digest of an entire subject, gained both from a study of the text and from outside reading. Often it is an outline from which the student intends later to write a theme. As this is a logical outline, it should assume the form of topics. Sentences are not topics. The topics and their sub-topics should show the logical division of the subject. Sub-topics are less important than main topics, but importance alone should not be the basis of determining what should be main topics and what should be sub-topics. For instance, I once knew a teacher who made James II of England a sub-topic of Charles II because he was less important! Needless to say, that teacher had a great deal of difficulty in teaching outlines, and her pupils made a sorry mess of it when they went to other teachers. Each topic should be tested to see if it logically belongs under the topic under which it is proposed to place it. For instance, Charles II and James II might be logical sub-topics of the main topic, The Restored Stuarts, or the title of the outline might be "The Restored Stuarts" and Charles II and James II be logical main topics of the outline.

Not often should a topic have only one sub-topic. In case only one fact is to be given about the main topic, it is better to use the colon and continue as a part of the main topic. For instance, we will suppose a very brief outline in which Wolsey is merely mentioned. This would then take the form:

Wolsey: the prime minister of Henry VIII.

The form would not be

Wolsey.

1. The prime minister of Henry VIII.

METHODS TO BE USED IN TEACHING OUTLINING: I believe that the question outline can best be taught deductively, while the topical outline can best be taught inductively. In teaching the question outline, there is one main question, varied only with the circumstances, "What would you naturally want to know about the given situation?" The question outline can be made before the lesson is studied and so can supply a set of questions by which the student can test his knowledge or seek new knowledge not contained in his textbook. The topical outline, on the other hand, requires a reading of material before the outline is even started. With the teacher at the blackboard, a small section can be outlined. Attention is called to the matters of endorsement, title, notation,

capitalization, etc., as illustrations arise. Then with a student at the blackboard, another small section may be outlined. Probably the student will make mistakes, but that is a small matter for as the class corrects the mistakes, all learn together. Next the students may each outline still another small section. This will result in differences, and an outline should be developed which will combine the best points of all the individual outlines. Care should be taken to see that each student understands *why* one form is better than another. After this preliminary work, practice, correction, and more practice are needed to perfect the understanding of the methods of outlining. This is the most difficult stage, for teachers become lax and students become tired. This is the time when outlining must be varied with some work of a very different character, when outlining must be shown to be a very real help in lesson-getting, when praise for good work must not be stinted, and when the work must be kept interesting by any lawful means within the teacher's power.

ARE THE RESULTS WORTH THE EFFORT? Yes, decidedly yes. The development of the student in his power to analyze and relate new material, in his power to master a lesson, in his power to present the facts learned in a logical relation to one another, is all most worth while. The task is tedious, but students who have been put through a rather severe training of this sort are ready to testify that they have proved its usefulness, not only in history and English, but also in physics, chemistry, economics, or almost any other subject that they have to tackle.

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Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,
TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

History of the Latin-American Nations. By William Spence Robertson. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1922. 617 pp. \$4.00.

The New Latin America. By J. Warshaw. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1922. 415 pp. \$3.00.

Latin America and the United States. By Graham H. Stuart. The Century Company, New York, 1922. 404 pp. \$3.75.

Guide to Latin-American History. By Halford Lancaster Hoskins. D. C. Heath & Co., New York, 1922. 121 pp. \$1.00.

The field of instruction in Latin-American history, formerly so neglected, shows signs of fruitful cultivation through textbooks and syllabi that facilitate the task of the college teacher. Each of the works listed above contributes in greater or less degree to this end. The general history of the republics south of the United States, contemporary conditions among them, their relations with this country, and a guide to all three phases of the matter are now available.

In the massive manual by Professor Robertson the life record of the republics is handled with an amount of skill and thoroughness that commands the fullest praise. Alike in scholarship, tone and proportion it takes easily the first rank among textbooks in any language on the special topic with which it is concerned. Its value also is enhanced by an ample and well arranged bibliography.

Except for the first six chapters, dealing with the period before independence, and the last two, which discuss certain "problems and ideals" common to the Latin-American countries, and relations with the United States and Europe, the work treats in separate chapters each of the ten republics in South America, Mexico, and the West Indian and Central American states put together. The author, accordingly, regards them as real nations, rather than more or less artificial political divisions representative of the Hispanic type of civilization and suggestive of the group of commonwealths that make up our own Federal Union. On the basis of such an interpretation of their nature and condition he has produced a text that adequately illustrates it. Whether the wealth of detail provided and the iteration inseparable from accounts of inter-relationship in the development of so many countries sprung from a virtually common origin will affect its usefulness in the classroom, only the test of service can determine. Had the publishers, also, been less parsimonious in their allowance of maps that help instead of confuse, and the author more discriminating in his selection without critical comment of bibliographical material, teacher and student would have derived more benefit from them.

The New Latin America is a very different sort of work from the one preceding. It is a miscellany descriptive of contemporary conditions in the area south of the United States. Though written with plenty of freshness and vigor, the book will hardly commend itself to the student who believes that such qualities in composition ought to be kept subordinate to others more indicative of a knowledge derived from years of investigation and an understanding of the value of logical arrangement. As a series of verbal pictures it will please the general reader who does not mind being told how ignorant he is about Latin America.

The object of the treatise by Professor Stuart is to give a survey of the "diplomatic and commercial relations between the United States and those Latin-American countries with which our interests have been most closely related." Within these limitations he has provided a textbook quite superior to any other in the special field. But he has not delved as deeply into the subject as might be desired. In a work confessedly of a general character he has not seen fit either to trace historically or to emphasize the four fundamental factors in the development of the political and commercial relationship of the United States with the republics of Latin America, namely, the Monroe Doctrine, national preponderance, economic expansion and Pan-Americanism, to each and all of which the treatment of their manifestation in the several geographical areas is necessarily subordinate. He vouchsafes no attention whatever to the evolution of a Caribbean policy as such, arising out of the operation of those factors, and constituting the most significant phase in our dealings with the republics more or less adjacent to our shores.

Professor Hoskins has furnished a useful indicator of topics and bibliography, though published too soon to include any of the books already discussed. In it he should have made some reference to the environment in America prior to the arrival of the Spaniards and Portuguese. An application of the word "Iberian" to their colonies is unfortunate; so is that of "foreign colonial possessions in Latin America" to the European dependencies south of the United States. No estimate is given of the relative value of the books cited. Many of them are antiquated, superfluous or irrelevant. Slips in names and titles also call for correction.

WILLIAM R. SHEPHERD.

Columbia University.

World History, 1815-1920. By Edward Fueter.

Trans. by S. B. Fay. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1922. 490 pp.

Professor Fueter's book, doubtless influenced by the War, makes a departure which is both interesting and important, in that it devotes nearly half the space to colonial expansion and to diplomacy. This part of the book is done very well indeed. There is detailed narrative; there is philosophic comment; there is full explanation of the great causes and consequences.

The author makes clear the importance of the new economic order that arose after 1870 that was driving the nations to seek raw materials for their factories and concessions for their surplus capital. He shows how this revived old hatreds and rivalries and engendered new ones, leading finally to the tragedy of 1914.

In his treatment of the internal history of the various nations the author is not so fortunate. These chapters are short, disjointed, and scrappy. In the chapter headed "Socialist Movements" there is almost nothing about socialism, but a hasty outline of the Third French Republic and the German Empire. Occasionally errors creep in: that the Cour de Cassation pronounced judgment against Dreyfus (p. 388), that Socialist leaders were Cabinet members in England (p. 395), that Irish immigration was largely responsible for the rapid settlement of the Mississippi Valley (p. 174), and that the English Old Age Pension law was passed after the opposition of the Lords had been broken by the Parliament Act (p. 394).

In describing the events leading to the outbreak of the World War, Professor Fueter declares that when Austria saw that her ultimatum was leading to a general conflict she became alarmed and was making ready to back down, when Germany stepped in and stiffened her backbone in order to maintain her (Germany's) prestige. The translator of this book, Professor Fay, to whom students of the World War owe a deep debt of gratitude for his masterly articles on the origins of the World War in the *American Historical Review*, conclusively proves that the very contrary of what Professor Fueter states is true.

The chief value of Professor Fueter's history lies in the fact that it is an excellent book for the general reader who, thanks to Mr. Wells, has once more become interested in the reading of history. It is liberal and tolerant in the treatment of many problems and almost entirely without national bias. The style, to judge by Professor Fay's translation, is easy and readable, the style of a writer who is familiar both with his material and with the interests of his readers.

J. SALWYN SCHAPIRO.
The College of the City of New York.

Our Old World Background. By C. A. Beard and W. C. Bagley. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922. xi, 504 pp.

With this book the authors complete a three volume series undertaken some years ago. Each of the preceding volumes represented a radical departure from the traditional organization of material for the elementary grades. *Our Old World Background* is no exception. Like its predecessors it is a pioneer book in the field, in that the authors have expanded the idea of a European background for American history to include world movements down to our own day. It is true that Professor S. B. Harding in his *Old World Background to American History* (a revised edition of his *Story of Europe*) which appeared in 1919, added three short chapters on the Growth of Freedom in

which he presented the story of the French Revolution and briefly discussed world development since, but he devotes only 22 pages to this summary as against seven chapters of 220 pages in the Beard and Bagley textbook.

The authors have not indicated just where the book is to be used, but the number of pages and the organization of the material seem to limit its use to the sixth or seventh grades. The arrangement of the book is topical as might be expected. The reader cannot but admire the courage with which the authors forge their way through the great mass of material which confronts them as they approach modern times. In order to add this material to a year's survey they have seriously complicated the task of teacher and pupil by the necessary condensation of the earlier period. This part of the book does not give as pronounced illustrations of their methods and procedure as do the later portions. The headings for the last seven chapter divisions are: "The Age of Machinery," "Nationalism in the Nineteenth Century," "The Growth of Democracy," "The Imperial Rivalry of European Nations," "Europe in Our Own Time," and "The Culture of the Modern Age." These indicate the big generalizations which have been attempted and it is just here that we seriously question the plan which has been followed. It is difficult to visualize boys and girls of the sixth and seventh grades carrying away such concepts, for example, as those of nationalism and imperialism, in view of the difficulties encountered three or four years farther on in securing an appreciation of these important aspects of modern times. The authors apparently believe that such a history should be expository and didactic rather than essentially narrative and dramatic in character. In committing themselves so whole-heartedly to this idea they convey the impression at times that they have written down to their readers and have failed to appreciate the way boys and girls of this age look at life—a fundamental consideration.

The volume is withal an attractive and valuable addition to the "background" books, and the authors have done their bit and done it well, toward solving the much vexed question of the organization and presentation of such material. Only classroom testing will reveal clearly the type of textbook that is demanded in teaching this larger field.

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON.

Lincoln School of Teachers College.

An Introduction to Economic History. By N. S. B. Gras. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1922. 340 pp. \$2.25.

There has been much talk since the days of Marx of the "economic interpretation of history," and not a few historians have attempted to graft upon their political stories an economic background. Efforts, however, actually to write history from this point of view, or to trace the development of certain economic phenomena, have been rare. It is because Professor Gras has to a certain extent attempted to do this and

because he has written in an original manner of the long progress of the human race in terms of economic stages, that we find the book valuable and stimulating. This development he has divided into five stages: (1) that of collectional economy, when primitive man more or less haphazardly collected what was necessary for his existence; (2) cultural nomadic economy, when man became a herder and a gardener; (3) village economy, a period in which the nomads actually settled down; (4) town economy, when villages grew into communities of specialized trades and manufacturing, and dominated to some extent the surrounding country, and (5) metropolitan economy, when great cities organized the business and acted as a sort of clearing house for a wide area. A chapter is devoted to each of the first four stages while the discussion of metropolitan economy is divided between two, one dealing chiefly with England and the other with America. The rapid growth of urban life since the Industrial Revolution makes a treatment of economic history from this angle particularly interesting.

Although an outgrowth of classroom work at the University of Minnesota and designed for similar work elsewhere, this book is more than a textbook; it is a notable, almost unique, contribution in scholarship to a field which has been as yet but lightly explored. But to call it "An Introduction to Economic History" is misleading. It is more truly a specialized study of the development of town and metropolitan life. Economic history is certainly more than this. While the conclusions advanced seem warranted, the danger should be pointed out that history written from an *a priori* thesis is likely to result in the student's receiving an impression that is warped.

At the end of each chapter are excellent suggestions for further study with very definite material listed. The conclusions are well buttressed with citations which are collected at the end of each chapter and serve, with the suggestions for further reading, the purpose also of a bibliography. Thirteen sketches and maps amplify the text. This is the first volume of an Historical Series to be published by Harper's and edited by Guy Stanton Ford, and it can safely be asserted that Professor Gras has set a standard for the series not easy for his successors to follow.

HAROLD U. FAULKNER.
Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The Trans-Mississippi West (1803-1853). A History of Its Acquisition and Settlement. By Cardinal Goodwin, Ph. D., Professor of American History in Mills College. D. Appleton & Company, New York and London, 1922.

This is an orderly and useful narrative of the local history of the trans-Mississippi. Professor Goodwin is one of the California school of historians, trained in the details of the Spanish Southwest, and understanding the background against which American expansion has exhibited itself. He does not, however, over-exploit the origins of that civilization, or leave the reader wondering why an order that was so

important failed to maintain its cultural grip after the end of Spanish rule. He gives a balanced narrative, with details of acquisition, facts of exploration, and steps in occupation, all arranged in reasonable proportion. There is little in the volume that will be new to the specialist in the West, but it is all useful and nowhere is it better done.

Within the limits that Professor Goodwin has set himself he covers everything. From the Louisiana purchase in 1803, to the Gadsden purchase fifty years later, he traces each of the Western accessions to our territory. His accuracy is high. The limitations are those of choice. He has, for instance, not cared much for the development of American institutions in the series of experimental fields that the West afforded. He has shown little interest in watching the transfer of American ideals across the Mississippi, or in studying the democracy of Andrew Jackson in Texas, Louisiana, Missouri and Iowa, or in measuring their reaction upon the East and the Federal government. This is not because he is unaware of these things, but because he prefers to deal with beginnings and control.

His treatment of the Mexican War is broken up because he has treated separately Texas, Oregon, and what he calls the "cession" of California. In doing this he has, we think, obscured the fact of Polk's determination to get California,—peacefully if he could, but in any event to get it. The bare fact is indeed stated; but the impression of the chance reader will be that the Southwest came automatically into the possession of the United States. If the Mexican War was just the writer ought to show the grounds for it, as Justin H. Smith has learnedly done. If it was manifest destiny, and the normal Westward growth was bound to reach California even without a war, then he ought to show more of the drive of migration and the way in which American institutions sterilized out of existence all rivals in their way. Or if Polk's conscious policy did it, then the facts from Polk's own diary ought to be exploited. Professor Goodwin's limitation to a study of local history has made this national event somewhat less than clear. But the book is moderate and reasonable, and well provided with bibliography and notes. It is welcome.

FREDERIC L. PAXSON.

University of Wisconsin.

The Distichs of Cato: A Famous Medieval Textbook.
Translated from the Latin, with introductory sketch, by Wayland Johnson Chase. University of Wisconsin Studies, Madison, 1922. 44 pp. 50c.

This was a task worth doing and a task well done. The sayings, though jejune and trite enough, were widely used in schools of Europe from the third to the eighteenth centuries. Many times edited for beginning instruction both in Latin and Ethics, early translated into the vernacular of practically all the European states, approved and borrowed from by savants and litterateurs as widely separated in time and thought as Alcuin, Abelard, Chaucer, Erasmus,

and Benjamin Franklin, they serve as an interesting and useful illustration of the kind of pabulum with which, through some fifteen centuries of European history, it was thought worth while to nourish the mind of youth. "This conquering career," says the present editor, "was not due to the superlative greatness of theme or content but primarily to their simplicity and the homeliness and practicalness of their wisdom. . . . What the author seeks most to inculcate is prudence, caution, self-possession, shrewd adaptation to circumstances, courage, moderation and self-control" (p. 11).

On one page is printed the text, divided into four books of from twenty-four to forty-nine two line verses, and on the opposite page the rhymed translation. To the distichs are prefixed fifty-six short proverbs which were quite certainly of later authorship. The present translator points out that he has made use of earlier English editions of the work, now out of print, and traces of this are readily discernible. But the work is substantially his own, and in the translation, though at times free and sometimes twisted to meet the exigencies of his rhyme, he reproduces well the spirit of the original. The workmanship satisfies the demands of scholarship; to teachers of history the book furnishes readily available illustrative material of considerable value.

AUSTIN P. EVANS.

Columbia University.

The New Policies of Soviet Russia. By Lenin, Bukharin, Rutgers. Charles H. Kerr & Company, Chicago, 1922. 127 pp. \$1.00.

Any person who desires to understand the gradual changes in certain policies which have taken place in Soviet Russia during the last two years should not fail to read the three essays in this little volume. M. Lenin's "The Meaning of the Agricultural Tax," explains in considerable detail "military communism" or the system of food requisition employed until recently by the Soviet régime and the reason for substituting therefor the agricultural tax. This tax, labeled by Lenin as a transition measure, simply means taking from the peasant the minimum quantity of grain necessary for the arming of the workers. In this essay also the Soviet Premier decries bourgeois speculation, but at the same time attempts to show why economic concessions are necessary to the present maintenance of the Soviet state,—in other words, why it is necessary for the time being to compromise with capitalism.

The second essay, "The New Economic Policy of Soviet Russia," is composed of numerous passages selected from a lecture delivered by N. Bukharin before the Third World Congress of Communists in July, 1921. In large measure it supplements the Soviet Premier's essay. Experience, Bukharin points out, taught the Soviet authorities that a proletarian state could not be created over night and that many temporary arrangements and concessions must be entered into with the bourgeoisie. His discussion of the place of the peasant in the Soviet scheme is particularly informing.

The last essay, and the longest, "The Intellectuals and the Russian Revolution," by S. J. Rutgers, is somewhat dogmatic and given to over-statement; nevertheless, it shows the communistic attitude toward the "bourgeois intellectuals" who, the author says, "should be considered as our enemies" and whose monopoly of culture will prove "most difficult to break." Yet from these intellectuals, he confesses, the teachers of Russia must, for the time being, be drawn. "The bourgeois intellectuals," he states, "must take part in the building up, and at the same time bourgeois intellect must be defeated." The new methods of proletarian education, which he briefly sketches, furnish food for thought for those of us who have been over-zealous in advocating specialization in education.

The volume is well printed but has no index.

HARRY J. CARMAN.

Columbia University.

Tropical Holland. By H. A. Van Coenen Torchiana. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1921. 317 pp. \$2.50.

Although the sub-title of this work by the Consul General of the Netherlands for the Pacific Coast states is "An essay on the birth, growth and development of popular government in an Oriental possession," it does not describe the actual contents. "Popular government," or anything approximating a system of colonial rule in which representation of the natives appears, has too recent an origin to warrant such a designation, and but few pages in fact are devoted to it. Even the policy adopted long ago of allowing native rulers to manage local affairs receives little notice. What the author presents in the main is an account of the physical and ethnological characteristics of the Dutch East Indies, especially Java, an outline of the history of the region and a survey of its conditions at the time of writing. To those unfamiliar with the subject, and in particular to prospective travelers in one of the most delightful of tropical areas on earth, the book will be welcome alike for its readability and the information it conveys.

WILLIAM R. SHEPHERD.

Columbia University.

Book Notes

The teaching of current events is one of the most difficult problems of the high school. There are at least four objects in undertaking the work: to give the information about current history which is necessary as a part of training for citizenship; to form the habit of keeping up with the news; to acquaint the student with the best weekly and monthly magazines, and to teach him how to read the newspapers. The chief difficulties in the way of the work are the subject matter itself, the fact that the vocabulary of the magazine or newspaper is beyond the average high school boy or girl, and the volume of printed matter in the current magazines. *Loose-leaf Current Topics* (4 pp. 2 cents, weekly; Institute for Public Service,

1125 Amsterdam Avenue, New York) goes far to meet all three of these difficulties. They give in simple concrete form the essential facts of the news, and not mere summaries but rather a simple editorial treatment. Frequently one whole issue will be devoted to the elucidation of one subject, such as the tariff, ship subsidies, or the Italian Revolution. Of the four objects listed above the leaflets serve best for securing information and acquiring the habit of keeping up with the news. Perhaps with students under sixteen this is all that should be expected. The older students may use the leaflet as index, guide or introduction to newspapers and magazines. A brief daily report from newspapers may be required, and students asked also to bring in additional material from weekly and monthly magazines. In short, the leaflet, in a manner, does the teacher's work of explanation for him and leaves him free for further development of the work. Its chief disadvantage seems to be that student subscriptions to magazines are likely to be decreased. Often neither the student nor his family are familiar with the best magazines.

JESSIE C. EVANS.

William Penn High School, Philadelphia.

Mrs. Mary Agnes Hamilton is a literary free lance who has written five indifferently successful novels, and a number of translations, the best known of which is Nordan's *Interpretation of History*. Her *Outlines of Greek and Roman History*, 1 to 44 B. C., and *Outlines of Roman History*, to 180 A. D. (163 pp., \$1.00; 86-192 pp., 85 cents; both Oxford Clarendon Press, 1913, 1914, were probably intended for the English junior grades, and these would roughly correspond to our advanced grammar grades. For the American schools these *Outlines* are inadequate and unsuitable. Both the Greek and Roman sections are predominantly military and political history: two chapters deal with the Peloponnesian War; a separate chapter is devoted to the Samnite Wars. On the other hand, the Minoan-Mycenean civilization is dismissed with a scant page, Etruscan civilization (in its bearing and influence on Rome) with but several lines. The illustrations indicate the author's interests: the Otricoli Jupiter, the Mourning Athena relief, the British Museum Pericles, Alexander the Great and Julius Caesar, and the Roman Forum. For historical purposes the reproduction of the Varvakeion Athena Parthenos, and the basalt Caesar of the Barracco Museum would have been more accurate (the Brit. Mus. Caesar is a modern forgery—see Strong, *Roman Sculpture*, II, 353). Misstatements of chronology and fact occur more frequently than one would expect in a Clarendon Press publication. The maps, in black and white, should not have been restricted to the areas of the Greek and Roman peninsulas respectively.—JOHN R. KNIPPING (Ohio State University).

Mr. A. Mervyn Davies, whose *Influence of George III on the Development of the Constitution* (Oxford University Press, 1921, 84 pp.) was awarded the Stanhope Historical Prize for 1921 in Oxford University, regards the reign of George III as a period

both of climax and of new beginnings. It witnessed "the decline of the system of government by small family groups of great landowners" and also "the birth of many of the main political and constitutional developments of the last hundred years." The author's research has not been very extensive, nor is his comment on events and tendencies marked by much insight, but he has sketched in a creditable fashion the broader outlines of his subject. Opinions are occasionally expressed, however, for which it would be difficult, if not impossible, to find justification, and there are several positive mis-statements.—R. L. S.

Since René Brunet's *The New German Constitution* is the only extensive account we have in English of the new government of Germany it is fortunate that the work has been done in such a scholarly and scientific manner. In a Foreword, Professor Charles A. Beard assures us that M. Brunet "is a French scholar of the finest type, careful, objective and sincere". Successive chapters deal with the origins, the movements toward a unified state, the democratic principle, parliamentary government, fundamental rights and duties of Germans, and the economic constitution and socialization. In the Appendix is given the complete text in English of the German constitution. The whole analysis is made with great care, in fair spirit, and often with penetrating comment. It is extraordinary that no index is provided. (Alfred A. Knopf, New York. 1922. 339 pp. \$3.50.)

A Boy's Life of Booker T. Washington, by Vice-President W. C. Jackson of the North Carolina College for Women is frankly based on the writings of Washington, especially his *Up From Slavery*, and on Scott and Stowe's *Booker T. Washington, Builder of a Civilization*. The story is well told for young people and ought to prove interesting and inspiring to children of both races. Booker T. Washington stands out as an extraordinary character and a man of remarkable good judgment and sound common sense, not only among his own race, but as an American. (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922. 147 pp.)

Teachers who are dissatisfied with the results of their efforts to teach "current events" from periodicals and newspapers might well consider the possible usefulness of such a collection as Speare and Norris's *Vital Forces in Current Events*, "readings on present-day affairs from contemporary leaders and thinkers." (Ginn & Company, Boston, 1920. 284 pp.)

The publisher is correct in assigning conciseness as a chief virtue of *Armenia and the Armenians from the Earliest Times Until the Great War* (1914). Translated from the French of Kevork Aslan by Pierre Crabites (Macmillan Company, New York, 1920. pp. 138, XXIX. \$1.25). The book is reasonably well-proportioned also, the history of the Armenian people in ancient and medieval as well as modern times being given adequate space. The chronological treatment predominates and too little is said about Armenian literature, culture and the Church. The first chapter presents well the geographical factors. The Preface on the evolution of the Armenian question (by the translator) is a brief exposition of the

responsibilities resting upon the Great Powers. Maps, index, and table of contents are lacking. Transliterations are somewhat unusual and a bit pedantic.—A. I. A.

In *Facing Old Age*, Mr. Abraham Epstein records the fruits of three years of study not only of documents but of actual conditions in the great industrial state of Pennsylvania, and provides the most recent and adequate manual on the important social problem of old-age dependency. The book is packed with information, in large part statistical, but also including summaries of the legislation and insurance and pension systems of all foreign countries and of the American states. The absence of an index is only partly compensated by the full Table of Contents. (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1922. 352 pp. \$3.50.)

Professor Arthur E. R. Boak's *A History of Rome to 565 A. D.*, is a sound and reliable summary of facts, but lifeless in style, commonplace in treatment and organization, and inadequate in its attention to economic and social phases. These defects are the more unfortunate because of the need of an up-to-date college textbook on Roman history, something comparable to the posthumous volume on Greece by the late Professor Botsford which has recently appeared. As an outline of political history and chronology, with a full index, the book is useful. (Macmillan Company, New York, 1921. 444 pp.)

THE MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION AT WILMINGTON

As has been the custom for several years past, the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland took part in the annual convention of The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. This year the meeting place was Wilmington, Delaware, and the convention was well attended and altogether a notable success.

The joint sessions held on Friday, both morning and afternoon, were general in character but most interesting. In the afternoon the entire convention was conveyed by automobile to "Longwood," the beautiful country home of Mr. Pierre du Pont, where the meeting was opened by an organ recital, which was followed by addresses. At seven in the evening all gathered at an informal subscription dinner served in the Green Room of the Hotel du Pont. President W. M. Irvine presided and a number of distinguished speakers addressed the diners.

The special interest of the History Teachers was centered in their Saturday morning session held at the Tower Hill School, where an audience of perhaps a hundred listened to a program that had aroused unusual expectation. The fact that Professor William E. Lingelbach, of the University of Pennsylvania, has very recently returned from a visit to Europe gave an especial appeal to his topic, "Political Leaders in the new Europe." As the speaker took his hearers with him from England to France and thence to Czechoslovakia one felt thrilled to realize that only recently had he been in conversation with Bonar Law,

Poincare and Masaryk. In introducing his address, on "The New Constitutions of Europe," Dr. Lindsay Rogers, of Columbia University, used a telling figure. Referring to his subject as one of "political anatomy" he said Dr. Lingelbach had dealt with "political physiology." Dr. Rogers has also just returned from the other side and was able to give much realism to his scholarly and informing analysis of the amazingly numerous new constitutions that have recently been written in Europe. The keen interest with which the addresses were followed by the audience was evidenced in the unusual number of questions addressed to the platform when the chairman had opened the discussion.

At breakfast in the grill room of the Hotel du Pont the Council of the Association held on Saturday morning a very important conference. Here a number of decisions were reached with reference to the future policy of the organization. The year 1923 is the twentieth anniversary of the inauguration of the Middle States Association, in celebration of which an intensive drive for new and active members has been planned. Already more than fifty have been added to the membership and this is regarded as a hopeful beginning of the campaign. Within the next six weeks it is hoped that the next issue of the official bulletin, the *Proceedings*, will make its appearance, in it will be printed in full the addresses delivered at the Wilmington meeting. This volume, No. 19, will be a combination number covering the meetings held in 1921 and 1922. The present officers of the Association are Professor J. M. Gambrill, of Teachers College, Columbia University, president, and Miss Lena C. Van Bibber, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Maryland, secretary-treasurer.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Oct. 28, to Nov. 25, 1922.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.
AMERICAN HISTORY

Bogart, Ernest L. An economic history of the United States, (revised Edition). N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 593 pp. (10 p. bibl.) \$2.00.
 Britton, Wiley. The Union Indian Brigade in the Civil War. Kansas City, Mo.: Franklin Hudson Pub. Co. 474 pp. \$5.00.
 Dewey, Davis R. Financial history of the United States, (Eighth Edition). N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 567 pp. (20 p. bibl.) \$2.50.
 Hebard, G. R., and Brininstool, E. A. The Bozeman trail; historical account of the blazing of the Overland routes. . . 2 vols. Cleveland: A. H. Clark Co. 652 pp. \$12.50.
 Hill, Jozef. History of the United States of America in the Slovak language. Pittsburgh, Pa.: History Pub. Co., 301 Boggston Ave. 224 pp. \$1.50.
 McNeal, T. A. When Kansas was young. N. Y.: Macmillan. 287 pp. \$1.50.
 Massachusetts Historical Society. Broadsides, ballads, etc., printed in Massachusetts, 1639-1800. Boston: [Author] 483 pp.
 Perlman, Selig. A history of trade unionism in the United States. N. Y.: Macmillan. 313 pp. (1 p. bibl.) \$2.00.
 Preston, Howard H. The history of banking in Iowa.

Iowa City, Ia.: State Historical Society. 458 pp. \$2.00.

Stuart, Graham H. Latin America and the United States. N. Y.: Century Co. 404 pp. \$3.75.

Tansill, Charles C. The Canadian Reciprocity Treaty of 1854. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 96 pp.

Van Laer, A. J. F., editor. Minutes of the Court of Fort Orange and Beverwyck, 1652-1656. Albany, N. Wagner, H., and Keppel, Mark. California History [for young people]. San Francisco: Harr Wagner Pub. Co. 328 pp. \$1.75.

Wall, John P. History of Middlesex County, N. J., 1664-1920. N. Y.: Lewis Historical Pub. Co.

Wisconsin State Historical Society. Proceedings of the Society at its 69th annual meeting held October 21, 1921. Madison, Wis.: [Author]. 58 pp.

ANCIENT HISTORY

Evans, Sir Arthur. The palace of Minos at Knossos. N. Y.: Macmillan. 721 pp. \$35.00.

Hall, Jennie. Buried cities. [Stories for children of the buried treasures of Pompeii, Olympia, Mycenae, etc.] N. Y.: Macmillan. 171 pp. \$2.00.

Hamilton, Mary A. Ancient Rome; the lives of great men. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 160 pp. 85c.

Marsh, Frank B. The founding of the Roman Empire. Austin, Tex.: Univ. of Texas Publications. 329 pp. \$2.65.

Zimmern, A. E. The Greek Commonwealth; politics and economics in 5th century Athens. Revised. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 462 pp. \$5.35.

ENGLISH HISTORY

Beer, George L. The origins of the British Colonial system 1578-1660. N. Y.: Macmillan. 438 pp. \$3.00.

Dunbabin, Thomas. The making of Australasia; a brief history of the origin and development of the British dominions in the South Pacific. N. Y.: Macmillan. 258 pp. \$4.00.

Maxwell, Constantia E. The foundations of modern Ireland. [Select extracts from the Sources.] Pt. 1. The civil policy of Henry VIII and the Reformation. N. Y.: Macmillan. 64 pp. 50c.

Mowat, R. B. A new history of Great Britain. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 1028 pp. \$8.50.

Perks, Sydney. The history of the Mansion House [London]. N. Y.: Macmillan. 228 pp. \$14.00.

Robinson, Howard. The development of the British Empire. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 475 pp. \$3.50.

Seelye, Sir John R. The growth of British policy. N. Y.: Macmillan. 402 pp. \$5.50.

Slatin Pasha, Col. Sir R. Fire and sword in the Sudan, 1879-1895. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 416 pp. \$2.00.

Tait, James. The study of early municipal history of England. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 18 pp. 50c.

Webb, Sidney and Webb, Beatrice. English local government. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 521 pp. \$8.25.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

Cresson, William P. The Holy Alliance; the European background of the Monroe Doctrine. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 148 pp. (2 p. bibl.) \$1.50.

Guedalla, Philip. The second empire. N. Y.: Putnam. 457 pp. (9 p. bibl.) \$5.00.

Wells, H. G. A short history of the world. N. Y.: Macmillan. 455 pp. \$4.00.

West, Willis M. The story of world progress. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 669 pp. \$2.00.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

Kelly, Marshall. American bias in the war. N. Y.: Lemcke and Buechner. 272 pp. \$2.00.

Society of the First Division, compilers. History of the First Division during the World War, 1917-1919. Phila.: John C. Winston Co. 450 pp. \$5.00.

MISCELLANEOUS

Wingham, Hiram. Inca-land; explorations in the highlands of Peru. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 365 pp. (4 p. bibl.) \$5.00.

Breasted, James H. The Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 96 pp. \$1.00.

Gubbins, John H. *The making of modern Japan*. Phila.: Lippincott. 316 pp. \$5.00.
 Sykes, Gen. Sir Percy M. Persia. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 188 pp. \$2.50.
 Thomson, John A., editor. *The outline of science*. In 4 vols. Vol. 4 N. Y.: Putnam. 865-1220 pp. (10½ p. biol.) \$4.50.
 University of Illinois. *Materials for historical research afforded by the University of Illinois*. Urbana, Ill.: [Author]. 56 pp. Gratis.
 Weale, Putnam. *An indiscreet chronicle from the Pacific*. N. Y.: Dodd Mead. 310 pp. \$3.00.

BIOGRAPHY

Bogger, Eugene S. *Eminent Europeans*. [Biographies of present-day European celebrities.] N. Y.: Putnam. 283 pp. \$2.50.
 Corson, D. B., and Cornish, H. R. *Founders of freedom in America*. N. Y.: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge. 296 pp. \$1.12.
 Cunes, Sherman A. *From printer to President*. [Life of Warren G. Harding.] Phila.: Dorrance. 153 pp. \$1.75.
 Lane, Franklin K. *The letters of Franklin K. Lane, personal and political*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 473 pp. \$5.00.
 Weik, Jesse W. *The real Lincoln; a portrait*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 323 pp. \$4.00.
 Straus, Oscar S. *Under four administrations, from Cleveland to Taft*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 456 pp. \$4.00.
 Steiner, Bernard C. *Life of Roger B. Taney, Chief Justice of the U. S. Supreme Court*. Balto.: Williams and Wilkins. 553 pp. \$6.00.
 William II of Germany, 1888-1918. *The Kaiser's memoirs*. N. Y.: Harper. 365 pp. \$3.50.
 Baker, Ray Stannard. *Woodrow Wilson and world settlement*. In 3 vols. Vols. 1 & 2. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 432, 561 pp. \$10.00 set of 2 vols.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

American Ass'n for International Conciliation. *The constitution of the Czechoslovak Republic*. N. Y.: [Author]. 86 pp.
 Burdick, Charles K. *The law of the American constitution*. N. Y.: Putnam. 687 pp. \$6.00.
 McBain, H. L., and Rogers, Lindsay. *The new constitution of Europe*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 612 pp. \$3.00.
 Marx, Ellie M. *Citizenship; history and civics for Americanization*. Richmond, Va.: Johnson Pub. Co. 96 pp. 75 c.
 Wallace, William K. *The trend of history*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 572 pp. \$3.50.
 Young, Clyde L. *Government of North Dakota and the nation*. N. Y.: American Book Co. 290 pp. (1 p. bibl.) \$1.20.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

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GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

World History Course. H. A. Davis (*Journal of Education*, London, November 1).
 Preparation for Teaching the Social Sciences. George F. Zook (*Educational Review*, November).
 The Study of Church History. Rt. Rev. Thomas J. Shanahan (*Catholic Historical Review*, October).
 A Bibliography of Church History, 1918-1920. Rev. W. F. Whitman (*Catholic Historical Review*, October).
 Opportunities in Historical Fiction. Michael Williams (*Catholic Historical Review*, October).
 The Battle of Dara. Capt. J. M. Scammell (*Cavalry Journal*, October). A. D. 530, in the reign of Justinian.
 A Forgotten Chapter of Mauritanian History. Teignmouth (*Nineteenth Century and After*, November).
 Disarmament Proposals in 1816. C. K. Webster (*Contemporary Review*, November).

The Freedom of the Straits. Alfred L. P. Dennis (*North American Review*, December).

The Freedom of the Straits. J. Ellis Barker (*Fortnightly Review*, November).

The Freedom of the Straits. George Aston (*Nineteenth Century and After*, November).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

The Dispensing Power of the Crown in Ecclesiastical Affairs, II. E. F. Churchill (*Law Quarterly Review*, October).
 The Origins of the Anglo-French Treaty of 1860. Arthur L. Dunham (*Nineteenth Century and After*, November).
 The Introduction of Registration of Titles to Lands in Scotland. G. H. Crichton (*Law Quarterly Review*, October).

GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

The U. S. Naval Air Force in Action, 1917-18. Lieut.-Com. W. Atlee Edwards (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, November).
 The French Cavalry Raid in the Battle of the Marne. Gen. A. D. v. Kuhl (*Cavalry Journal*, October). From *Militär-Wochenblatt*, August 13, 1921.
 The Rôle Played by the Serbian Cavalry in the World War (continued). Capt. Gordon Gordon-Smith (*Cavalry Journal*, October).
 The British Cavalry in Palestine and Syria (continued). Lieut.-Col. Edward Davis (*Cavalry Journal*, October).
 The American Artillery in France. Brig.-Gen. A. Maitre (*Coast Artillery Journal*, November).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

The First Teacher of European Music in America. Lota M. Spell (*Catholic Historical Review*, October). Pedro de Gante.
 Witches in New Jersey. Joseph F. Folsom (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, October).
 The Colonists of William Penn. Marcia B. Bready (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, October).
 English Convicts in the American Army in the War of Independence. E. Alfred Jones (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, October).
 Alexander Hamilton's Military Plans. Col. Charles F. Bates (*Infantry Journal*, October).
 Damaged Souls. Aaron Burr. Gamaliel Bradford (*Harper's*, December).

Fredericksburg, Her People and Characters. Robert R. Howison (*William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine*, October).

Alexander McNair. Walter B. Stevens (*Missouri Historical Magazine*, October). First governor of Missouri. Transportation of Pottawatomies. Benjamin F. Stuart (*Indiana Magazine of History*, September).

Early Normal Schools. Ascension Seminary and Captain William T. Crawford. John C. Chaney (*Indiana Magazine of History*, September).

The Grand River Country. E. W. Stephens (*Missouri Historical Magazine*, October).

Pioneer Life in Southwest Missouri. V. Wiley Britton (*Missouri Historical Magazine*, October).

The Followers of Duden. X. William G. Bek (*Missouri Historical Magazine*, October).

A True Story of the Border War. B. F. Blanton (*Missouri Historical Magazine*, October).

Shelby's Expedition to Mexico, VIII. John N. Edwards (*Missouri Historical Magazine*, October).

James W. Marshall, the New Jersey Discoverer of Gold. Elias Osseller (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, October).

Education in Western Pennsylvania, 1850-1860. Florence E. Ward (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, October).

The Knownothing Party in Indiana. Carl Brand (*Indiana Magazine of History*, September).

The Jews in America. Burton J. Hendrick (*World's Work*, December). I. How they came to this country.

From McKinley to Harding (continued). H. H. Kohlsaat (*Saturday Evening Post*, December 2).

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